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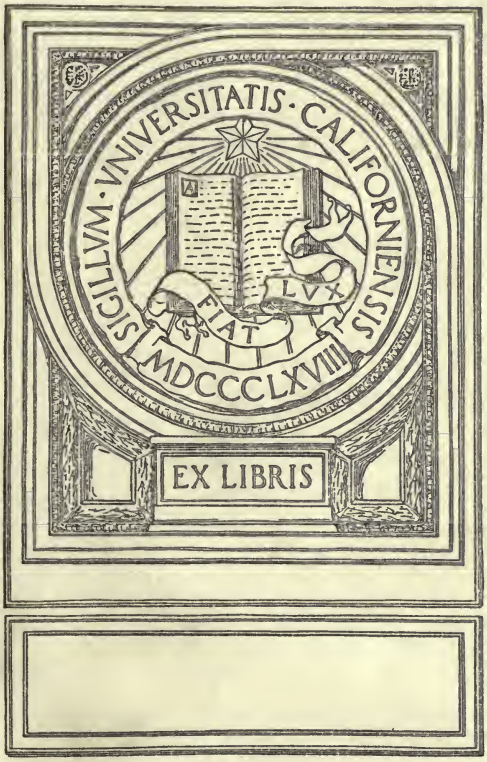
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One of the Cordon or Guard of the South Coast of the Crimea.

NEW RUSSIA.

JOURNEY

FROM

RIGA TO THE CRIMEA,

BY WAY OF KIEV;

WITH

SOME ACCOUNT OF THE COLONIZATION,

AND THE

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS

OF THE

COLONISTS OF NEW RUSSIA.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

NOTES RELATING TO THE CRIM TATARS.

BY MARY HOLDERNESS.

Germans, and Scythians, and Sarmatians, north
Beyond Danubius, to the Tauric Pool.

PARADISE REGAINED.

LONDON:

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PREFACE.

THE Volume which I now present to the Public, owes, in some measure, its existence to the favourable reception accorded to my former attempt. By the plan of that work, I scrupulously confined myself to such notices as my experience enabled me to furnish respecting the Tatars of the Crimea alone, suppressing the information which I had likewise collected on the Manners and Customs of the other Inhabitants of New Russia.

These details, though perhaps not inferior in interest to those which I published, I was induced altogether to withhold, lest I should interfere with the intentions of a friend, who, I had reason to believe, had directed his thoughts to the same subject. That difficulty however has now not only been completely removed, but the kindness of the friend alluded to, has supplied me with much very important additional information, thus stamping a value on the present production, which it would otherwise have been far from possessing.

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I may now, therefore, venture to hope, without meriting the charge of presumption, that the following pages, which I have spared no pains to render accurate and impartial, will prove an acceptable present to the Public, particularly as whatever relates to Russia, and more especially to the Southern Provinces of that Empire, bears at this moment, from the circumstances of the time, a more than ordinary interest.

I have had an opportunity of obtaining a corrected statement of the population of particular towns, from the last census, which I have subjoined: but of the correctness of the former in the aggregate, I am induced to feel increased certainty, from the opinion of a more competent judge than myself on that subject.

I have also revised and enlarged my "Notes on the Manners and Customs of the Crim Tatars," in order, by adding them to the present volume, to form a more complete whole.

It is highly gratifying to my feelings to state, that the indulgence which has been extended to that little work, has not been confined to my own country, since it has recently been honoured by the condescending approbation of His Imperial Majesty the Emperor Alexander.

In committing myself once more to that liberality which I have experienced on a former occasion, I feel that I have derived from it additional confidence in the execution of my task, and an increased desire to be found worthy of it.

MARY HOLDERNESS.

ERRATA.

Page 105, *for* Chap. I. *read* Chap. X.
— 117, *for* Chap. II. *read* Chap. XI.
— 130, *for* Chap. III. *read* Chap. XII.
— 140, *for* Chap. IV. *read* Chap. XIII.

JOURNEY

FROM

RIGA TO THE CRIMEA.

CHAP. I.

Arrival at Bolderâà, the Port of Riga—Account of Riga: its Exports and Imports, Annual Fair, and Floating Bridge.

AFTER a three weeks' passage from England, we landed at Bolderàà, the Port of Riga, from which it is nine miles distant; the bar across the river at this place, rendering it impracticable for large vessels to proceed beyond. Getting our luggage ashore, and settling with the custom-house officers, detained us two days here. The inn is kept by a German family of the name of Kleiburg, who speak English well; the

accommodation of the house is good, and it is respectably conducted. We dined at the ordinary, at which the master and mistress of the house preside. Contrary to our English custom, the dishes are sent up singly, or in pairs, one at top, and one at bottom, and the table is filled up in the length with ornamented flower-baskets, baskets of fruit, and pickles, &c.

The neatness of an English kitchen was very strongly contrasted here, and gave me no prepossessing expectation of the cleanliness of the people of this country. It resembled much more a blacksmith's shop than a kitchen in England, and I could almost have imagined myself suddenly transported to the dominions of Pluto, so black and disagreeable looked all around me. The kitchen range was a raised hearth of brick or stone about the height of a common table, and extending the whole width of the lower part of the building, with a fire of wood blazing from one end to the other upon it: over this are placed different sized iron pots, which, with a large knife and spoon, were the only utensils that seemed to be necessary here. I am not sure

that there was a table, the stove itself serving that purpose, as I have since very often seen.

From hence to Riga we went by water, and arrived there late in the evening. This town is well known, from its importance in the commercial world: it is said to have had at one time 40,000 inhabitants, though now its population does not exceed 30,000: from hence its size may be in some measure estimated. It presented to me much of novelty, though little that is not too well known to need description here. We walked around its ramparts, which I am told is a permission never granted to strangers; however, we passed unmolested, and enjoyed the first clear frost of a Russian winter. The shops of Riga are very poor and insignificant in their appearance, few of them being so good as the best shops in our country towns. The trade, however, is considerable. Among the articles of exportation, the principal are,

1*st*, Hemp, which is chiefly brought down from Russia and Poland by means of the navigation of the Dvina. As soon as it arrives,

which is commonly about the middle of May, it is sorted according to its quality, by persons sworn to that office, and is then exported at different prices, and under various denominations. Polish hemp is of a softer and more tender nature than Russian hemp, and in general, that which is distinguished by a bright green colour is preferred. There is likewise some hemp grown in Livonia, which, though inferior to the best of the other kinds, is valuable to the merchants, because, being brought by land carriage during the winter, it is ready for exportation before the arrival of the chief supplies, which are detained by the freezing of the Dvina.

2*nd*, Flax which is grown in the government of Riga, and is brought to the town in sledges during the winter.

3*rd*, Corn from Russia and Poland, Lithuania, Courland, and Livonia. The exportation is chiefly confined to wheat and rye, as the barley and oats are of an indifferent quality, and are only used for home consumption. The wheat is sent to Holland, France, and Spain; the rye to Sweden and Holland.

4th, Hemp-seed from Russia and Poland, is exported to Holland for the supply of the oil-mills.

5th, Linseed for sowing, from Lithuania, Courland, and Livonia. This is sent in the autumn to the Hanse Towns, Holland, and Flanders. A small quantity is sometimes exported to England, and more to Ireland. As it is unfit for its purpose if stale, the sellers are called upon to make oath, that what they produce is the fresh seed of the year. All that is not exported before the winter, is sent to Holland to be crushed for oil.

6th, Fir timber, including masts and spars, deals and planks. The masts are brought from forests in Polish and Russian Ukraine, on the banks of the rivers Briganskie, Desna, and Soeltz, which are branches of the Dnieper. By means of this river, and the canal which unites it with the Dvina, they are conveyed the whole distance by water-carriage, and generally arrive at Riga in the month of May, after having been no less than eighteen months on their route. The Riga timber is considered superior to that

exported from Memel, and bears a much higher price.

Besides these articles, there is a small exportation of iron, soap, and tallow, which however being cheaper at St. Petersburgh, are sent in far greater quantities from thence. The trade in pot-ash, which was formerly considerable, is now in a declining state.

The bringing together the produce of such an extent of country at the mart of Riga is well worthy of attention, and though I did not witness it, I had the opportunity of learning many particulars about it. The produce of Poland, from Kiev northward, around the shores of the Dvina, are sent to this place. After the operation of threshing the different grain is performed, and the frost set in, so that the ice on the rivers will bear, the peasantry are then engaged in constructing the raft which is to float these cargoes to their destined port. These vessels are formed with much ingenuity and little expence, being put together without the use of a nail, and merely pegged with wooden pegs, and stuffed with tow to make them impervious to the

water. They carry from 200 to 500 tons burthen, and are from 200 to 400 feet in length, formed of large trees split into rough boards. The rudder is a single fir tree, at which twelve or twenty men preside, according to the strength required. The most valuable part of the cargo, which is wheat, hemp-seed, &c. is stowed in the centre of the vessel, a space being left around the sides for the package of those goods which a little wet will not materially injure, such as hemp, cordage, &c. This being completed, the vessel is ready to take advantage of the earliest part of the navigable season. As soon as the ice is broken up and clear, the vessel floats with the strong current which succeeds to the removal of the ice, and thirty or forty of the peasants, sometimes with their wives and families, take their passage upon it. The owner or his steward meet the cargo at Riga, where it is either sold to the merchants, or warehoused, according to circumstances. The vessel then is knocked to pieces, and sold for firing, or frequently for paling for the merchant's yard, and often fetches no more than from 100 to 200 rubles.

The manner in which timber is floated down, equally deserves notice. A number of squared trees, perhaps 50, 60, or upwards, are lashed together alongside each other by strong cordage, upon the ice: on this foundation other timber is laid, and then immense quantities of fire-wood, which is cut by the peasantry during the winter months, when other business is suspended; this wood is piled up to the height of 12 or 14 feet, and upon this the peasants who are destined to conduct it, often with their families are seen passing up the river. These arriving at Riga nearly about the same time, the middle of May, form a scene highly curious and interesting to the observer, who, if he be a stranger, has his attention doubly excited by the novel mode of transporting these goods, and by seeing at one view, so large a share of the produce of Poland, as the navigation of the Dvina brings to this market.

Of the imports into Riga, or any of the ports of the Russian empire, it is difficult to give any satisfactory account, as they are constantly varying with the varying policy of the government.

Colonial produce, and manufactured goods, are the articles most in request, and are imported in greater or less quantities, as the trade is permitted or forbidden. In this year (1815) the importation of the latter was strictly prohibited; but as they were generally, not to say universally, in use, the contraband trade must have been enormous, and was said to be carried on with the collusion of the custom-house. Salt and herrings are imported in great quantities, and sold to the Polish peasantry.

The floating bridge at Riga is one of the objects that most attracts the notice of the stranger; it is 2600 feet in length, and 40 feet in breadth: it is laid down as soon as the river is clear from ice, and taken up when the frost sets in.

The procuring carriages, and making other necessary preparations, detained us at Riga ten days, and we then left it, in the most disadvantageous state of the roads, to prosecute a journey of more than 1300 English miles.

CHAP. II.

Departure from Riga—Mode of Travelling, and Travelling Equipages—Account of the Regulation of Post-Horses—Kreitzburg—Russian Stoves—Russian Costume—Distillation of Brandy—Beer—Kvass.

We set out from Riga in the evening of Saturday, November 18, N.S. 1815, our equipages consisting of a Polish *britchka*, and three *kibitkas;* our party in number were eleven, including two English, and a Russian servant. If our thoughts had not been occupied by a crowd of more serious ideas at the outset of this our long and adventurous journey, the sight of these novel carriages, and our own appearance, huddled up in different sorts of fur *shubes*, so heavy and so cumbrous that we could scarcely walk beneath their weight, would all have afforded subject for laughter and burlesque; though it was only the preparation for the outset, and the packing into the carriages, that ex-

cited risibility; for the moment they began to move over the rough-paved streets of Riga, the jolting was so intolerable, that it threatened to dislocate our joints; and the first half hour of our drive made me look forward with dread, and almost despair, to its termination.

A britchka is in form just like a small English waggon, and upon wheels about the height and size of the little cole-seed waggons: it is made with a calash (or head) like our barouches, which can be thrown back occasionally, and an apron of leather fastening up to within a foot of the top of the hood; within side two curtains of leather draw, and shut one up completely from the cold; to make which more secure, a mat is then put over the head of the carriage, and tied on, so as to admit of its being fastened down over the apron at night, and thrown back in the day. I always objected to this, which seemed to threaten suffocation, and never submitted to it, but when the extreme cold made it indispensible. At the bottom of the carriage is packed as much luggage as it will conveniently hold, and over that is laid a bed, or mattrass, with

pillows, blankets, &c. The ascending and settling into this machine, is really of itself a great undertaking; but I must acknowledge, that a better acquaintance with its merits than the first hour afforded me, has made me certain, that in none of our English carriages could I have passed so long a journey with so little fatigue. A kibitka is very similar in form, but not so large within, or so good looking without, as the carriage I have just described: they are both without springs.

Before we left Riga, our passports given by the Russain ambassador in England, were exchanged for what is in Russian called a *podoroshna*, in which billet is expressed the name of the person to whom it is given; the place from whence he starts; that to which he is going; and the number of horses for which he has paid a share of the *progone*, or post-money: on giving this passport, we paid for 1898 versts, (a verst being three-quarters of an English mile) at two kopeeks per verst, for each horse, in all 456 rubles; the ruble was then in value about 10½ *d.* but unlike our English money, it varies

according to the credit of paper money, which is now extremely low.

The letting of post-horses, is a place of considerable emolument under government. The passport being sent to the post station, they are then obliged to furnish horses, as soon as they have the number required at home, and ready: should there not be at home so many as are needed, (which a Russian can easily ascertain from the books, or a stranger from a visit to the stables), the travellers must then unavoidably wait till one hour after the return of the horses, that time being given to rest and feed them: in the books kept at all these stations, are registered the passport of the traveller, and the date of his arrival there; they are always open for inspection, and a complaint of any kind entered in those books, must unavoidably be sent with them to Petersburgh, where they are sent at stated times to be inspected. The occupiers of these stations (in Russian, *stantsie*) are generally officers of about the rank of lieutenant, and sometimes higher, in the Russian service: they are stationed at from twelve, to twenty, or some-

times thirty versts asunder; and under their inspection and care, a certain number of horses are kept by government, proportioned to the common demand for them on that part of the road.

The large number of horses we required together, was one of the principal causes of detention to us on the road: we were always obliged to have more than twelve, as the roads were extremely bad when we left Riga, and our carriages all very heavily laden. For the first two days the novelty of the journey had nothing to recompense us for its inconveniences, and the jolting, which though less violent than at first, could not be inconsiderable over bad roads in a carriage without springs. There are few English ladies who would chuse to undertake a journey around England in a covered waggon; and yet that would be far preferable, since the distance is much less, and the accommodation every where such as to make amends for the fatigues of the road.

From Riga we travelled three stages without delay, except to change horses: we then stopped to breakfast; this (though we made as quick a

meal as possible), unavoidably took up much time, because so much was necessarily spent in packing and unpacking. Our canteens, tea-kettle, and provisions which we had purchased at Riga, were regularly unpacked twice a-day. No accommodation of this kind can be had at the houses on the road; at the post stations they find you quarters, that is to say, allow you to be in their *room* (which during the latter part of our journey, we shared, in the style of an Irish cabin, with pigs, calves, and poultry), but no other accommodation is to be expected from them; we have I believe always found a table of some kind, but not always seats, and chairs scarcely ever.

After breakfasting, and repacking our stores, we started, and continued travelling until evening, when we again stopped, to dine and drink tea, of which we made one meal. Here we wished much to have staid all night, but the want of accommodation (for we could not at first put up with that which afterwards became familiar to us), obliged us to proceed. At the next stage we were not more fortunate; and my

feelings of fatigue were much increased, by the apparent impossibility of finding a place to rest at.

We journeyed on till we reached Kreitzburg, a Polish town, where I was most thankful to get into a house that afforded me a neat and comfortable room to myself. To this enjoyment, however, there was one drawback; the oppressive heat from the stove, to which I had not been used; for at Riga, though our rooms were heated in the same manner, they were so large that they were never extremely hot. The temperature of this latter room had been raised to West Indian heat, and such effectual pains taken to exclude every particle of fresh air, that it was very long before I could be sufficiently freed from the fear of suffocation, to attempt to sleep; and as my room opened into the one where the gentlemen slept, I was not willing to disturb them by any complaint, and my egress from that room (had I passed through), must have been into an out-house or stable, where *yemtcheks*, (drivers), horses, and other live stock were lodged for the night.

In the essential comfort of a warm house these

people very far exceed us, and are able to bid defiance to a degree of cold, from which in England many poor creatures would perish. The best constructed stoves are built with bricks cast in a mould in the form of an ear; these fit together, and are held by wires which pass in counter directions through them. Thus the chimney is formed, which passing to a certain height, has a top or cover of iron, made to fit close, and shut up its funnel. A small door in the exterior of the stove is left for the removing and replacing this. Every room that is inhabited is regularly heated once, and in very cold weather, twice a-day; one stove will heat two, and sometimes three rooms; and it is inconceivable with how small a quantity of firing the houses in this country are kept warm throughout. A man with his arms full of wood, comes and lights the fire; this is permitted to burn until it is all become perfectly clear embers; the chimney is then closed, and the heat by that means thrown into the room. This being repeated in an evening, they have the comfort of a regular heat, which an English house never knows.

The shutting down of the chimney too soon, while any flame remains, is attended with the most dangerous consequence, producing lethargy and death. In order to exclude perfectly the open air, they have double windows, and the internal one has every crevice in its frame filled up with tow, over which is pasted a strong paper; the space at the bottom between the two windows is filled up with fine sand, so that it is not possible any air should enter.

At Kreitzburg there is a country-house belonging to General Korfe, Baron Stendal. The gentlemen understanding there was much game, sent to ask permission to take a few hours' diversion, which was granted, and the General sent a servant with dogs, to attend them. They hunt the hares here with greyhounds, taking out from ten or twelve to twenty dogs, which are all let loose at once, so that poor puss has of course small chance of escape. Indeed there was cause to suppose they had by this means extirpated the breed, or else the game-keeper did not think it requisite to show where the game was; for the gentlemen soon returned,

seeing no chance of finding what they sought. At a few stations farther on, they told us there had been no hares seen for two years; but previous to that time they were in great profusion.

We staid at Kreitzburg until Wednesday morning, not having been able to procure horses the preceding day: there was nothing to be seen in this place worthy a remark, except the house which I have already mentioned: our delay however served to refresh us, and we started better prepared to continue our journey. From Kreitzburg, we proceeded with little interruption (though very slowly, on account of bad roads), to the next station; the following stage was still more tedious; having very bad horses, one of the carriages was continually stuck fast, and all obliged to assist in getting it out of the mud again. The horses here are extremely small, about the size of our ponies, and the largest not bigger than those we call galloways, excepting some few of a superior description kept by private gentlemen, in the large towns. They have universally long manes and tails, which are kept on to protect them from the flies,

which in the hot summer of these climates, are more particularly troublesome. The harness, as it belongs to the owners of the horses, and not to the carriage, is never very splendid. The traces are usually of rope; and a single rein of the same material serves the driver to guide the horses; which are driven four a-breast, and by a short rein fastened to each other. To heavy carriages five or six horses are required, and the two additional ones, having a postilion upon one of them, are affixed by *extremely* long traces, and go before: the drivers are called yemtcheks.

The costume of the Russian peasant is very different to the English, and consequently very striking to English eyes. Whatever it may want in appearance it is substantially good, and well adapted to the severity of the climate. The man's dress consists of a shirt of very coarse linen, made with only a binding, or very narrow collar, round the top; large full breeches of the same material; a large pair of boots, or sometimes very coarse stockings, with shoes of the bark of the linden-tree; a sheep skin with the

wool inside, in the form of a loose coat, and over this, when the weather is very cold, another coat of extremely coarse woollen cloth, often made with a hood: a cap of coarse cloth with a broad fur of some common kind, or more frequently sheep, or lamb skin, of about a hand's breadth in depth, around it. Thus equipped, they travel at all hours and in all kinds of weather, and might, but for their own imprudence, travel with impunity, and without fear of the cold; but they are extremely addicted to drunkenness, and in this state, it is said, many hundreds of them perish in a year. When the frosts are severe, and they are travelling in the night, the incautious use of the common spirit they call *vatki*, or brandy, overpowers their faculties, and they fall asleep while driving, and are frozen to death. The brandy in common use here is distilled from corn, and is something like English gin, but a more fiery spirit, and less agreeable to the taste; it is drunk in immense quantities, and a large share of the revenue derived from the duties upon it. This revenue continues to increase; it has produced 68,000

rubles, and now probably brings a much larger sum. It is let to different contractors for a term of three years only; these contractors have a comptoir in each town for the sale of the brandy, and the retailer must have his license and his brandy from thence*.

They have but little knowledge in brewing, except at Petersburgh and Moscow, and few breweries elsewhere; at these places they brew both ale and porter, but neither are at all equal to what is brewed in England. The common drink of the Russian is *kvass*†, which is not so good as our small beer; it is sometimes made with flour and water, flavoured by herbs; sometimes with different sorts of fruit, and this latter

* Of brandy distilled from corn there is a consumption of five millions of vedros, for which about one and a half million of tchetverts of corn, or ten millions of poods, are necessary. The sale is a monopoly of the crown, and the right to distill it is confined (with the exception of a few privileged provinces), to the nobility who possess landed estates.—See *Tooke's Survey of Russia.*

† Small ware, and water-like, but somewhat tart in taste. —*Turberville.*

kind is a much pleasanter drink, though it is all sour; the method of making it is very simple; a large barrel is filled with fruit, sometimes plums, sometimes apples, crabs, wine sours, or in fact any fruit of which you have a sufficient abundance to make it from; there is then put into the cask as much water as it will hold, and in fifteen days it is fit to drink. After a few gallons are drawn off, it is filled up again with water, to make it last until the time of year when it can be made again. This sort of kvass is however only made in South Russia, and where fruit is abundant and cheap.

CHAP. III.

Night at Trepenhoff—Country between Trepenhoff and Dünabourg—Wild Bees—Account of the Linden-Tree—Dünabourg—Arrival and Stay at Kriesloff—Polotsk—Fatal Accident after leaving Polotsk.

At Trepenhoff we were obliged to wait all night, for want of horses, and here passed a most unusual scene. One room alone was to be had for our party, and the bedding was laid upon some hay on the floor, excepting one bedstead, which I and my baby occupied: the rest of the party were laid down to sleep, when they brought in a broad long form, upon which a soldier's cloak and a pillow were placed: I had put on my night-cap (the only change of course made in my dress), and was going to lie down, when, to my surprise, a young officer walked in, and very quietly took his station on the wooden

bench, which his cloak and pillow had converted into a couch for that night's repose. For some time I sat musing with astonishment, and doubtful whether, with this addition to our party, I could prevail upon myself to rest; but fatigue pleaded with a rhetoric I could not withstand, and I soon followed the example which had been given me. Since then I have been so accustomed to the same scene, that I could now lie down and sleep very quietly, with the addition of half a dozen or more to our party.

It would be in vain to attempt giving a description of the misery and dirt in which the people live; they all lie down to sleep in their clothes, taking off only the upper garment, and throwing over them either a sheep skin shube, or pelisse, or a cotton quilted coverlid: they swarm with every sort of vermin, the natural consequence of want of cleanliness in themselves, their clothes, and their houses. Unhappily for those of the English who travel on the Continent, they are so used to all the comforts of cleanliness and decency, that it is impossible not to feel extreme disgust and abhorrence at this barbarous race of beings, who

in all respects live more like herds of swine, than like rational creatures: in the houses of the Jews in particular, they live together in swarms like bees, though not like them for the purposes of industry; their little dirty children run about the house almost naked, or with only one garment on, a large long shirt; the children and the servants seldom wear stockings, and with the little idea they have of cleanliness in their houses, it is not likely that they can walk about their filthy clay floors with feet unsoiled.

The want of horses detained us here throughout the following day also; and we were advised to remain there another night, as many robberies had been committed by deserters from the army, who had secreted themselves in the woods, and had intercepted several passengers. Our party, however, being so numerous, the gentlemen took the precaution of going well armed, and prepared for defence, and we set out from Trepenhoff about nine in the evening. We reached the following station without being molested, and taking coffee, proceeded to Dünabourg, where we arrived about nine in the morning.

The country through which we have travelled from Riga hither, is most of it extremely wild, and many parts beautiful and romantic. Immense forests bounded our road on either side, and we have journeyed fifty or a hundred versts together through avenues of trees, principally the fir, the birch, and the lime: the route lay nearly along the course of the Dvina, which we had twice to cross, and which frequently presented itself to view in some very delightful landscape: the soil, however, is barren, and its inhabitants but thinly scattered, so that scarce any signs of cultivation are seen.

The peasants hang their bee-hives in the woods, that the bees may have the first flowers of the lime, whence they make very fine honey*.

* For a curious account of the wild bees of the forests of Russia, and the method of managing them, see Tooke's Survey, vol. iii. page 388.

"Next to the birch, the linden is in the greatest abundance, from which likewise Russia derives more benefit than is done any where else. The thick bark is usually made into baskets for carriages and sledges; into boxes and trunks; into coverings

The bark of the lime, or linden-tree, is manufactured into several different things: I have already mentioned the peasants' shoes; ropes are made of it, and it is used in making their sledges: there are eight or ten more purposes to which it is applied, insomuch that the owners of forest wood complain exceedingly, of the depredations committed by the peasants in stealing the bark and injuring the trees.

The houses here are all made of wood, not sawn into planks as in England, but whole trees cut into equal lengths; they also make their fences of wood, and in a most curious way: two stakes are driven into the ground just far enough asunder to admit the thick end of a pole; at the

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for cottages. The inner bark is the material of a very extensive manufacture of mats both for home and for foreign consumption. Of the rind of the young shoots, many millions of mat shoes are platted for the boors; the wood is sawn into boards, wrought up into canoes, burnt into pot-ashes, and from the blossom of the linden the bees suck an excellent nourishment.—*Tooke's Survey*, vol. iii. p. 368.

distance of the length of the pole two more are driven, and again two in the middle: between these a certain number of poles are laid, so as to raise a fence the desired height.

Dünabourg is now only the remains of a once populous town: in the year 1810, the government pulled down 700 houses, with churches, monasteries, &c. to make a fortification here, which has since been destroyed by the French, who in their route to Moscow passed along this road, which is of course rendered interesting by a remembrance of the events of that memorable campaign. A pretty church and a few miserable houses are now only left in this once flourishing place: generally speaking, the houses here are built with wood, but some few in the German style, with white brick; these latter have a kind of barn attached to the house at each end, one end used as a stable and carriage-house, the other as the *sleeping room* of those yemtcheks who belong to, or frequent the house; and this room, I am told, in no respect differs from the stable end, except that it is not fitted up with mangers.

From Dünabourg, when the repair of our carriage was completed, we proceeded to Platshy. Here a battle was fought between the French and Russians, and the place and its inhabitants wore the aspect of most miserable poverty.

Late in the evening we arrived at Kriesloff, a very flourishing town, which we were desirous of seeing, and determined to rest there. Many soldiers being quartered in the town, it was so full we could get no accommodation at the *tracteer;* and having tried several places in vain, one of our party turning to the Russian servant, in a tone of impatience inquired where they should go next; when two gentlemen, who were passing at the moment, seeing he was a stranger, begged to know what he sought? on being told, "Lodging for his party," one of them immediately offered, and insisted upon our accepting such accommodation as his quarters could afford. This gentleman was Colonel of the regiment there, his name Turscy: it was impossible for any thing to exceed the hospitality with which we were treated, during four days that we remained there; the Colonel giving up

one room entirely to me, and shewing every attention that politeness could dictate.

The town of Kriesloff, and several miles in extent on each side of it, is the property of a Count Platow, a Polish nobleman. The senior Count was absent, but we saw three of his sons; the eldest, in appearance and manners is one of the most elegant young men I ever saw; and certainly does honour to the rank he holds in society. Our friend the Colonel, besides other orders, was decorated with the very handsome one of St. Anne, which is worn around the neck. The town of Kriesloff is very beautifully situated, and would afford some most picturesque landscapes.

From Kriesloff we went to Druya, another very pretty small town: the churches here are handsomely built, and there are often three, or four, or five in a large village: at Druya we counted five.

At Drissa we crossed an arm of the Dvina, called by the name of this town, through which it runs. As there are no bridges here, we went over in a ferry, or a floating-bridge, which is a

flat platform, made large enough to hold two carriages, and the horses also; a rope extended directly across the river, and running through grooves in two upright poles at each end of this platform, guides the ferry over; by this also they pull, as the rivers are too deep in many parts to admit of pushing with a sprit.

Nothing else worthy of observation occurred until we reached Polotsk. Here we were detained ten days, getting our carriages put upon sledges, without which it was impossible to proceed. The Jews into whose hands we fell, made us pay dear for work that was very ill done, besides the unwelcome delay they caused us. There was little in the town to beguile the time, or attract our attention; some churches, a monastery (of which its immense kitchen was the most remarkable part, and spoke the easy condition of its owners), and the strong marks which the devastation of war had left in this gloomy and half depopulated town, were the only objects of observation; and these, especially the latter, excited a train of melancholy reflections. Whole streets had been destroyed,

houses gutted, and the bare walls still standing, as so many monuments of its present misery.

The weather was exceedingly cold during our stay here, having 27 degrees of Reaumur, and the great rooms of the house where we found quarters, looked like the tenantless chambers of some old castle falling to decay, where Russian warmth would indeed have been welcome, but where it could never come. We were visited by the *Gorodnechie*, or Mayor of the town, who furnished us with soldiers to guard our carriages, which was here a requisite precaution, though they were within the gates of the yard belonging to the house where we lodged. The inhabitants of this place are chiefly Jews, who form a large proportion of every town and village throughout Poland.

A serious and melancholy accident took place soon after we left Polotsk, and was in great measure owing to the ill construction of our sledges, the inconvenience of which, though we afterwards partly remedied, we felt in some degree throughout the whole time we used them. The driver of the britchka, making the horses (as

they too generally did) gallop down a very steep hill, was thrown from his seat, and dragged under the sledge for several yards: one of our men servants sitting behind, was also thrown off to some distance, and the horses continued to descend at full speed, the carriage swinging from one side to the other, with such extreme violence, that it seemed as if it would be dashed to pieces. We however reached the bottom of the hill in safety, where the horses were stopped. Some of the party then went in search of the poor fellow, who was found, and carried to a house by the road-side, where every care was taken of him that the place would admit; but he died in a few hours after, having received some internal injury, and being so much bruised, that it was not probable that medical aid (had it been near) could have saved him: the servant escaped unhurt; and *we* had great reason to be thankful for our deliverance from a danger that threatened the lives of all in the carriage.

The remainder of this stage was a long and most unpleasant part of the journey; the painful feelings which the accident had produced, were

much heightened by our peculiarity of situation. We had, for the first time, been obliged to divide our party, and *now*, myself and the children were entirely without an attendant, and *apparently* left to the mercy of a careless driver, who was twice thrown off his seat, and several times had nearly overturned the carriage. But the same over-ruling Providence which had before guarded us, continued his protecting care! Mr. Y.'s kibitka, which had previously kept pace with ours, now travelled much slower, from the want of skill in our English servant to manage the horses, he being obliged to drive, after the fatal disaster that deprived us of one of the yemtcheks.

It may well be imagined that I felt no inconsiderable degree of gratitude on arriving safely at the next station, and that I saw the arrival of our fellow-travellers with more than common interest. There are many parts of the journey which have produced an anxiety I could not describe; but this may easily be imagined to have been throughout a fearful and distressing one; the more especially, as at this time we knew nothing of the language.

The road we were travelling presented to us the most beautiful snow scenes imaginable. The country was extremely wild and woody, and whole days were passed in traversing forests and journeying through avenues of trees; which, covered with snow, looked bright and dazzling, their glittering being often heightened by the rays of the sun. But the want of population, as well as cultivation, gave an air of wild melancholy to it, occasionally increased by the appearance of a ruined village, of which sometimes a single house only remained, marking the place where the dreadful ravages of war had brought desolation in its train.

Between Polotsk and Besankovitch there are several extremely steep hills; and to descend some of them, it was necessary to take out a part of the horses, and affix ropes to the hinder part of the sledge, which several men held, to prevent the carriage going down too rapidly. The valleys are extremely wild, and many parts of their scenery partaking more of the sublime than the beautiful.

CHAP. IV.

Besankovitch, the Residence of Count Creptovitch, remarkable for the Characters of its present Owners, and for having been the Head-Quarters of Buonaparte, in his Route to Moscow—Accidental Detention on the Road—Description of a Russian Kabac—Meeting with the Count Romanzoff—Moghiloff.

Besankovitch is the residence of Count Creptovitch, a Polish nobleman. Mr. Y. having heard from Count Platoff, that this gentleman had been long in England, and was much attached to the English, and that he was anxiously pursuing an improved system of agriculture on his estate, he (Mr. Y.) resolved to visit him in passing; and at the station before he reached Besankovitch, he sent over a servant with a letter to the Count, who returned a very handsome answer written in English, inviting the party to go

there, for which purpose he sent us horses the following morning.

From Dubovinka to Besankovitch is twenty-one versts. We set off late in the morning, and the road being very bad, it was getting dusk when we came within sight of the Count's residence. Here we again crossed the Dvina; the descent to it is extremely bad, the road lying below a rock on one side, the other having a perpendicular precipice overhanging the river, and being so very narrow, that our carriage, which was somewhat wider than the rest, was in great danger of being precipitated down its rocky side; but having eight or ten men to assist in getting it safe down, they recovered its balance, and we reached the opposite shore in safety.

Here another delay was occasioned by one of the carriages getting set fast, and the ice not being strong enough to bear well, the horses could not draw it out. After much difficulty it was extricated, and at length we reached the chateau of the Count, where we were most kindly and hospitably received by the Count and Countess Creptovitch. The Count appears

about thirty, the Countess twenty-four: they have three very fine children. The Countess is one of the most prepossessing women I have ever seen; her first appearance bespeaks her a well-educated and polished woman; and the elegance and softness of her manners, and the kindness of her disposition, powerfully attach to her all who know her. As a wife and mother, she is very exemplary, devoting herself to domestic pursuits; to the instruction of her children, and to the comfort of all around her. This was the character given of her by those who knew her. In her person she is above the middle size, and elegantly formed, with a fine expressive face, light hair and eyes. The Count is well deserving his excellent wife, and they seem to live most happily together, blending the polished acquirements of life with the calm pleasures of retirement. He is very much attached to English habits and manners, and as much as possible introduces them in his house and at his table. They both speak English with the greatest correctness, and having accustomed themselves to use that language to their children, the latter speak it also,

and understand it, as if it were their native tongue. They are well supplied with English books from Petersburgh; the Countess herself gives their English lessons, and has a servant brought up in an English family at Petersburgh to attend them. The children are also taught Russian, French, and German.

The Count devotes himself much to the improvement and cultivation of his estate, which, under his discriminating care, will doubtless amply repay him. He has a very large distillery, and the gentlemen saw there the process of kiln-drying the corn, previous to threshing it. The house is a very excellent one of two stories, and most admirably heated; so that with the same degree of cold we had at Polotsk, (and for one day indeed more severe), we felt no inconvenience from it, but sat with the doors open, which communicated with two or three of the adjoining rooms. Several of the apartments had English grates in them.

Besankovitch was the head-quarters of Buonaparte for some days, in his route through this country, and from hence one of his bulletins was

dated. The Countess and her family fled from the scene, taking away as many of the valuable paintings, &c. as there was time to remove. The Count was absent on business at the time of their flight, and as he was returning, he observed a fire, which appeared in the direction of his house. With no small agitation he rode towards it as fast as his horse could carry him; and when he got near, he learnt that the French were in possession of the place, that a part of the village was burnt down, and his wife and children were in safety a few versts off, waiting in hopes of his arrival before they should be compelled to go farther. His first care was to remove them to a greater distance from this scene of horror and alarm; and as, for a length of time, it was impossible to return to the house after the havoc committed there, they went to the Countess's relatives in Livonia, where they remained several months.

The magnificent riding-house built by the Count in the English style, had been converted into an hospital, their excellent dining-room into a picquet post, and in the drawing-room the

bulletin was written and dated. The French had made the dunghill their burying-ground, though dead bodies were also found in the stables and other places. Of the large and valuable collection of paintings here, a few of which there was only time to remove, some were found scattered in all parts of the surrounding woods, torn from their frames, and otherwise spoiled or injured. A pack of fox-hounds, which the Count had from England, were at this period lost, and dispersed over the country.

We spent four days here very delightfully, and left Besankovitch, regretting much that it was not near enough to the end of our journey, to calculate upon the probability of soon, if ever, meeting our kind and hospitable entertainers there again.

Between Besankovitch and Moghiloff, we were obliged to separate for want of horses, and the road being heavy, and not snow enough to sledge well, we travelled very slowly.

The breaking of the britchka between Kekannoff and Staria Selo, occasioned us an unpleasant detention, and a visit to the interior of a

Russian *kabac*, or ale-house, which, however, all things considered, we were fortunate to be in the vicinity of, since we found a Vulcan and his forge in these dominions of Pluto.

The driver of the second carriage finding that the work necessary to be done would occasion considerable delay, insisted upon going on to the station immediately, or else he must take his horses off, and return home. It was therefore found necessary to send this carriage forward, and after the difficult arrangement of separating our now small party had been agreed on, Mr. H. with two of the children, proceeded in it to the station; the Russian servant being left to expedite and superintend the repairs of the britchka.

I was then ushered into the kabac, to await with as much patience as I could, a work that threatened a delay of at least an hour or two. The outer door of this dwelling opened into a covered passage, into which three other doors opened and communicated, one with the house, the opposite one with a store or lumber-room, and one with the yard and out-offices. A cow was tied up in one corner of this place, who seemed

well accustomed to her station. The door of the house opened into a low, smoky, and dark-looking room, where seated on benches around a large table, a party of men sat drinking, smoaking, and singing. The song ceased at my entrance, and they regarded me with much astonishment. I looked round in vain for a female, and took my seat on a bench as distant as I could from this carousing party. I talked to the children, and endeavoured to appear unconcerned, though the rude gaze of these savages annoyed me extremely. Presently a man having fetters on his legs, came in; he saluted and joined the party at the table, whose cordial reception of this felon did not heighten my estimation of the group: with much wonder in his countenance, he sent a scrutinizing look at the strangers, and soon got up and walked out, to learn from the servants what he could not ascertain from his companions.

Ivan had been attentively occupied in watching the carriage, that nothing might be stolen from it during the time these peasants were at work: a precaution invariably necessary,

even if there was nothing but rope or iron that could be taken away; but at length seeing my eldest boy a looker-on by his side, he left him as a guard, while he hastened to relieve me from this purgatory, and see if he could procure me any thing that was eatable. He soon found an interior room, where the woman of the house was cooking sour soup, &c. on a low hearth. The blaze of the fire was acceptable, and the room, though little bigger than a closet, and smelling of garlic so as scarcely to be endured, was still to be preferred to the one I had left, because it did not look so much like a den of savages. The woman was a Russian, and with Russian good-humour offered a part of her fare, which I had no appetite or inclination to accept.

After some time, I laid the child down to sleep on the bed, and walked out to see if the repairs would soon be finished. It was a clear, cold morning, and the sun shone with dazzling brightness on the spangled wood we had just quitted: a few scattered huts at no great distance from the kabac, neither added to the beauty, nor decreased the wildness of the scene.

As I was alone, I could not venture to walk far, nor was the snow beaten enough for walking, and I was compelled to return to the kabac. The lines of our Poet Laureate were forcibly recalled to my recollection, when I remembered that this was indeed the joyous festival of Christmas: I felt the powerful contrast with all the force of the poet, betwixt the "blazing hearth," and "heaped board," which I had so often shared in England, and that now before me; and lonely and uncomfortable feelings heightened the fatigues of the journey.

"Hence of the friends I think
Who now perchance remember me."

It was two hours before we were ready to proceed; and I felt no wish to repeat my visit to a Russian kabac.

At the station before we reached the latter place, Mr. Y. met the Count Romanzoff, whom he had known intimately at Petersburgh, and who now met him again with much pleasure, and gave him a particular invitation to stop as he passed his estate at Homil, to see the im-

provements there, and the manufactures he had established, which Mr. Y. promised to do.

At Moghiloff we stayed but one night, and I saw nothing of the town, except the part through which we drove: it is a district town, and of course a large one. The fine-looking churches and houses, all stuccoed and white, have a very imposing appearance; but, like many other beauties decorated with paint, they look best at a distance, and will not bear scrutiny. The roof of the churches, which are of iron or slate, are painted green, or red, or various other colours: they also paint the houses in a similar manner, which then look very gay.

Between Moghiloff and Homil are eleven stages; throughout which nothing particular occurred, except the customary hindrances from want of horses, and the necessity for separating our party.

CHAP. V.

Homil, a Country Residence of the Count Romanzoff—New Mansion of the Count, under the superintendance of an English Architect—Disadvantages to the exterior appearance of this and other Noblemen's Houses in this Country—English Residents at Homil—Russian Warm-Bath for Children—Russian Customs—Slaves—Tchernigoff—Passage of the Dnieper over the Ice, to Kiev.

At Homil we were received by Colonel Hince, the Count's steward, with every mark of politeness, and every possible accommodation afforded us; a suite of rooms prepared for our use, and every thing shewn that was deserving our attention. The Count has just erected a very noble mansion at Homil, under the superintendance of an Englishman of the name of Clarke, which is not yet complete in its internal decorations: it is two stories high, having a handsome though still unfinished hall; around the upper

part of which runs a gallery connecting the upper apartments: every room is stuccoed and painted in colours, with borders of some emblematical design, and ceilings of figurative representations: great variety of taste has been displayed, no two rooms being alike in colouring and design: the whole executed by his own slaves, some of whom were sent to St. Petersburgh, to be instructed in the arts required for completing this work in the superior style projected by its owner.

There is, however, one material drawback to the appearance of almost any of these houses in Russia, which offers an insuperable objection to them—I mean the want of a park, or, in many cases, even of a garden. Though all within the house bespoke luxury and ease, all without declared that civilization and cultivation extended not beyond the lordly mansion and its possessor: from its windows were seen the cottages of the peasants, and their not very clean appendages, the cattle-yards adjoining each; and these all crowded together, formed the fore-ground of the view, while the back presented to us only plains of snow, rising in unequal surfaces.

The principal manufactories, of glass, and I think of linen, were several versts distant, so that we did not see them. There is a candle manufactory here, which is an extremely productive concern; yet the poor people burn a little piece of cotton, stuck in some grease or oil, which gives a very excellent light, and certainly answers their purpose better than buying candles. A Scotchman of the name of Stephens had the conduct of this manufactory, and one or two more English or Scotchmen were employed in the service of the Count: they were glad to see their countrymen at so great a distance from home, and the more so, as few English passed in the same route, Homil being out of the direct road.

The infant not being very well, I had him and the other children put into a warm bath, which they prepare most delightfully, with every kind of aromatic herb. It is a constant practice here, to put children into a warm bath once or twice a week, until they are about two years old; and the effect during their teething, is very excellent. The water is put into a shallow

wooden vessel, like a butcher's tray, but rather deeper; and with a quantity of water just deep enough for the child to lie in it without the water coming over its face. A handful of herbs (of which they take care to dry plenty for this and other purposes), is put in, and the boiling water poured over them; a sufficient quantity of cold water is then added, to make it the proper heat. A linen cloth is put in for the child to lie upon, which is then wrapped around his body, to keep those parts warm which are not covered by the water. In this the child is laid for a quarter, or half an hour, and they told me, sometimes for two hours. The tin baths we have in England, must be preferable for this purpose.

At dinner in Russia, soup is universally the first dish, and without it they never dine; but it is often made sour, and in that case not much relished at first by an English palate. Fish, if to be had, comes next, and then from six to eight, or ten dishes follow. It is impossible to tell of what many of these are composed. A joint of meat is never sent to table whole, but cut into slices,

and handed round to each person, beginning with the ladies who are visitors. Poultry and game are also served in the same way: pastry is scarcely seen except in patties, which are sent up to eat with the soup, or a tartlet at the conclusion of the dinner.

Previous to the dinner, olives, caviarre, or some sort of pickled fish, with common and bitter brandy, are sent in on a tray, to whet the appetite for that which is to follow. The Russians sit long at dinner, and wine of different sorts is placed on the table, each person helping himself: the dessert, which finishes the dinner, is eaten without the cloth being removed; and the whole party then adjourn to the drawing-room, where coffee is immediately served.

The Russian ladies have always a certain number of their female slaves, who are brought up with more than usual care, and in fact educated for the department they are to fill. These, "the menial fair that round her wait," are, like those so often spoken of by Homer, the constant attendants upon her person, and as humble companions contribute to her pleasure and her

profit in various ways; they are skilled in ornamental work of different kinds. Mrs. Hince shewed me the tambour-frames and some very handsome embroidery which her young women were employed in. My thoughts continually reverted to the poet, while she directed and encouraged their labour—

"Go with the Queen, the spindle guide; or cull
"(The partners of her cares) the silver wool."

Although slaves of every description are attached to the soil, and the buying and selling them separately is strictly forbidden, yet it nevertheless frequently takes place; and a young woman brought up in the way I have described, and excelling in any one art, whether it be dancing, singing, or needle-work of any kind, is worth a considerable sum, and that sum varies according to the accomplishment she possesses, or the degree of proficiency to which she has attained, and she is sure to have a ready purchaser*.

* It may be affirmed without exaggeration, that in the house of a Russian nobleman, there are five or six times as many domestics, as are kept in families of equal rank, in any

In addition to the similitudes which exist in the offices assigned to these attendants, we must not forget that their conditions were, in other respects, frequently the same; such, for instance, was the servile state of the sage Euryclea:

> "Daughter of Ops, the first Pisenor's son,
> "For twenty beeves by fam'd Laertes won."

This custom of purchasing slaves, or menials, by live stock, is also very frequently practised in Russia*.

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other country of Europe; and the retainers of both sexes in some of the great houses of Petersburgh, amount to a hundred and fifty, or two hundred persons.—*Tooke's Survey*, vol. iii. p. 307.

* Of this disregard of the law, with respect to slaves, Tooke says: "There is indeed no law extant, by virtue whereof the boors are granted to the noblemen heritably, and as property in fee simple; but it grew into a custom (contrary to express injunctions) to make them retinue of the manor, and under this denomination to sell them singly. This unlawful procedure was at first connived at, then pervertedly expounded, and at length by long practice, took the place of law."—*Tooke's Hist. of Russia*, vol. i. p. 350.

The Russian salutation is very contrary to our etiquette. The ladies in meeting, kiss each other on the lips and cheeks; and a lady and gentleman meeting, the latter kisses the hand of the lady, and inclines his cheek towards her, which she kisses; and omitting to do this, is a proof of great distance of manner, arising from either superiority of rank, slight acquaintance, or offence.

At the six stations we passed between Homil and Tchernigoff, nothing particular occurred. We staid at the latter place a day and night. It is a district town, and altogether a good one; having some handsome churches, and much better shops than any we had seen on the Continent.

Of the cheapness of all kinds of provisions I might frequently have spoken; we bought here 38 lbs. of rump beef at ten kopeeks, or one penny English money per lb.; beef and mutton in the Crimea the same price. At Polotsk we bought two good turkeys for three rubles; and at Karasubazar a very fat large turkey for two rubles, or twenty-pence. Bread is not equally cheap; it is bought

much at the same price as in London: but all proprietors have their own wheat, and bread made at home is much cheaper. At Tchernigoff dried fruits begin to be abundant and cheap; good raisins fifty kopeeks, or fivepence per pound; prunes thirty kopeeks; we have since bought them for twenty, or for fifteen kopeeks per pound; and raisins at forty: currants at Odessa, a box of thirty-six pounds, or a Russian pood, for ten rubles, or eight shillings and fourpence, bought in the wholesale, and in retail about fivepence per pound.

From Tchernigoff to Kiev is five or six stations; at the last we were detained half a day for horses, and then obliged to bribe the postmaster to get them. It was eight o'clock when we got to the Dnieper, which we crossed here for the first time; it was a most dangerous undertaking, from the state of the ice, on account of the unusual mildness of the weather; and many attempts were made to dissuade us from attempting the passage over. The crossing directly over the river was indeed impracticable, and we had to go at least three or four

versts upon the ice before we could get across, being preceded the whole way by guides, who with iron pikes ascertained the possibility of the carriages proceeding safely. Notwithstanding this precaution, the horses' feet continually broke the ice; the river in many places appeared open, and water covered much of the ice over which we passed, sometimes to the horses' fetlocks. We were not less than two hours effecting the passage, and had almost as much difficulty in ascending the steep and slippery banks of the river when we had crossed it, as there was in getting over.

We entered Kiev very late in the evening, but had the comfort of getting into very good quarters. Its situation is remarkably fine; one part of the town is on a bold and rocky eminence; in going to it, we passed up a hill of more than a mile in length, with rocks towering above, and precipices below us. The hill between the upper and lower town, commands a most extensive and beautiful prospect, taking in the old town, or city of Kiev, that in the valley, which is called the Podole, the Castle of Pestcher-

skey, a stately monastery, churches, barracks, &c. and the river, which is broad, and must in summer be a magnificent addition to this scene.

CHAP. VI.

Kiev—The Contract, or Annual Fair—Monastery of Pestcherskey—Arsenal—Barrier Gates—Manufactures—Population.

KIEV is the chief town of the district of the same name*. It is much the best town

* In remote periods the Sarmates resided here, and long before their subjugation by the slaves, they built the town of Kief, and named it from the situation of the place; for Kivi, in the Sarmatian language, signifies a mountain. Even the people who inhabited the mountainous shore of the Dnieper were called Kivi. After the subjection of the Sarmates the slaves settled among them, and gave to those who inhabited the mountainous shore of the Dnieper the name of Goranes, which is of equal import with the Sarmatian Kivi; those who inhabited the plain, they called Polanes.—*Tooke's History of Russia*, vol. i. p. 5.

Ancient writers say, that Kiev, in the 9th century, in the reign of Oleg, son of Rurik, contained 400 churches, eight market-places, and an immense number of inhabitants. Of this splendour and magnificence no vestige remains.

which we have seen, and of far greater extent than any except Riga. The shops are very superior, and many things are to be bought cheaper here than in any other part of the country which we had previously passed.

A fortnight after we left Kiev, was to be the annual fair called the Contract; and people assemble from all quarters, insomuch, that not a lodging can be found after the Contract has begun: it lasts three weeks, and during that time even private families let their houses, or a part of them, to the annual visitors. All kinds of merchandize are brought here for sale, and all the noblesse of the country come to purchase. In almost all the towns, the shops are in large squares, and are not adjoining the houses, as in England.

The gentlemen formed an acquaintance here rather singularly, which afterwards proved an acceptable one. Passing in the streets a young man, who from his dress and appearance they took to be an Englishman, they could not resist inquiring if he was one; he replied that he was not, but if they were, they could possibly give

him some information of Mr. Y., to whom he had a letter of introduction. Mr. Y., of course, announced himself. This young man, whose name was Tiel, was a partner in a mercantile house at Moscow, and had just commenced business at Kiev. By this gentleman we were introduced to Col. and Mrs. Beshkakoff. Mrs. B. is a woman of fashionable manners and address: both herself and the Colonel were from Petersburgh, and could speak English well; they gave us a general invitation to their house, and treated us with much hospitality and attention.

The ladies here wear very handsome Turkish shawls, without which no woman in company thinks herself well dressed; they give from five hundred to two thousand rubles for them. Mrs. Beshkakoff shewed me three, one of which cost eight hundred, another a thousand, and one twelve hundred rubles. The Russian ladies dress extravagantly and expensively, and particularly so at Moscow and Petersburgh; I am told, usually in the French style, and with much elegance and taste.

Colonel Beshkakoff very obligingly took us

in his carriage to visit the Monastery. It was founded in the eleventh century, and called Pestcherskey, because the Monks formerly lived in pestchera, or caverns. On arriving there, the first object that excites attention is the assemblage of devils, which in large paintings *adorn* the exterior of the building. I shrunk, afraid to enter a habitation apparently so guarded, until assured it was only meant to shew how pure and holy must be the sanctuary where the evil genius of man was thus kept without, and not allowed an entrance. "Where," said they, "can these powers of darkness be so effectually excluded, as in a place like this, the residence and the repository of saints!" The interior of this building presented a very different aspect; the Monks were engaged in prayer; their appearance, and the solemn grandeur of all around, inspired other feelings than those with which we had viewed its exterior; the ground we trod was consecrated by Religion, and respect awaited her votaries.

This Monastery is richly endowed, and its church very splendidly decorated: the body of

it is almost covered with paintings, and burnished gold ornaments; the candlesticks and chandeliers are all of massy silver, and extremely valuable. The robes, and caps or mitres worn by their priests, are most superb, and have been given in presents by different parts of the Imperial Family, or some of the wealthy nobles, at different times to the church. The robes are of gold or silver brocade, very rich in itself, and ornamented, some by borders of gold work, others with deep bordering of pearls and precious stones of every description. I should in vain attempt to give any idea of their magnificence: one was valued at 250,000 rubles, when the ruble was at two shillings and sixpence; others at 150,000 rubles, at 100,000 rubles, &c. valuable crosses are also exhibited; and testaments in covers of solid gold, silver, brass, or some other curious or valuable materials. The whole riches of the convent treasury was estimated at twenty-five millions of rubles, when the ruble was half a crown.

At this monastery are also the famous catacombs, which so many thousands of infatuated

people in the Russian empire, go on foot to visit every year. The preparation for descending into this repository of the dead was more solemn than the scene itself; for the monk accompanying us, related such incredible and ridiculous stories of the saints whose relics lay there, that we must have had a more than common share of credulity to have believed them. Every person going down into these vaults purchases a wax taper, and having lighted it, in solemn silence follows the monk, who, as he conducts the visitors through these vaulted sepulchres of the dead, opens the coffin lid, unfolds the shroud, and tells the name of the saint enshrined in that repository: no part of the body is to be seen, of course the flesh is all wasted, and the bones only remain perfect, from having been completely kept from the air; the face and hands are commonly covered with gold or silver tissue, or brocade, or some kind of silk: a cap is placed on the head, of the same material. The coffins are generally of Cypress wood, but some of massy silver, very richly engraved. There are two or three handsome little chapels in these

subterraneous passages, built by some of their saints, and consecrated for their hours of private devotion. Several cells are shewn, where they say monks, in a vow of penance, have had themselves walled up, and only a little window left, at which they received daily their bread and water, and there remained until their deaths: in one of the cells are the twelve masons who built the church, and then entered as monks into the Monastery.

In another place you are shewn the body, or rather the head and shoulders of a man stuck in the ground: in a vow of penance he dug a hole, in which he placed himself, standing with his hands by his sides, and then had the hole filled, so that only his head, and a little below the shoulders, could be seen: here he lived *(they say) fifteen years*, having food and drink brought to him, and a lamp constantly burning by his side: they still allow him a lamp, which burns day and night continually, though he has been dead six or seven hundred years; this, however, they can well afford to do, as he brings a considerable share of the riches of the Convent. The cap he

wears is supposed to work miracles, and restore the sick; accordingly, hundreds come to visit St. Antonio, and wear his cap, which is frequently the undoubted means of restoring health, though not in the way that enthusiasm and credulity imagine, but by the simple process of being the cause of their taking unusual exercise in the open air, and exercising also a temperance not habitual to them. I should not omit to mention that St. Antonio is said to sink a little lower in the ground every year, and that the world is to be at an end by the time he entirely disappears. Amongst the wonders which they relate, this can scarcely be classed as the greatest; and if time in its mighty changes does not annihilate the Monastery of Pestcherskey, St. Antonio will probably not disappear, while he continues so instrumental to the well-doing of his brethren.

Having so particularly mentioned the merits of this saint, let me do justice to the others also, and state, that all have their votaries, and that money lay scattered in every coffin, as if the golden age had returned, and man no longer

continued to heap sordid gold, or required its aid to help him to the comforts of life. It is reckoned that from sixty to a hundred thousand pilgrims, from all parts of the Russian empire, visit the Monastery at Kiev, in one year; and the revenue the monks derive from the sale of wax candles, is alone sufficient to furnish food for the establishment.

The splendour and ceremony of the Greek Church is very imposing; and it is not much to be wondered at, that over minds so barren and uninformed, the craft of priesthood has attained such sway; but it is lamentable to see the ill effects of a religion built on so good a foundation, so shamefully perverted, in the moral practice and doctrines of its professors.

After leaving the Monastery we went with the Colonel to see the Arsenal, which is an exceedingly fine square of buildings, and has in it seven hundred pieces of different sorts of cannon, all kept in the finest order: the length of one room, where the large guns are deposited, is about two hundred yards, forming one side of the square, which within the

building is 200 by 150 yards. It is built of brick, stuccoed without, and has a very good appearance. In passing through the barrier gates, and over the drawbridge, the postilions gave a sort of scream or halloo, which astonished me very much, and of which I could not imagine the cause, until it was explained to me: it is principally used in the larger towns, as Petersburgh, Moscow, &c. where the constant passing to and fro of carriages, makes it indispensibly requisite to announce to the drivers of other carriages near, the passing of one through the gates; and the scream is prolonged, according to the rank of the person to whom the equipage belongs.

Before I quit the recollection of the Monastery and Church we had been so much gratified by seeing, I am induced to mention, that our quarters were at the house of a Jew and Jewess who had lately seceded to the Greek Church: they were not then baptized, but were soon to have that ceremony performed in public.

The manufactures of Russia are all far behind ours in the attainment of excellence. The Emperor gives every possible encouragement to them, but the owners and establishers of them, consider only their own profit, and not the good quality of the material, or the possibility of making it more generally useful. How they can make it the cheapest, and sell it the dearest, are the two points aimed at; thus, scarcely any thing bought of Russian manufacture, is worth having: I ought I believe to except plate glass, as well as that of long-established reputation, the manufacture of linen.

Near to Kiev, is a fabric of earthenware, which the gentlemen went to visit, and bought several articles there. This is considered one of the best manufactures, but they do not last like English plates, as the glaize wears off in a short time. All kinds of cutlery are very bad. The glass is tolerably good, and very well cut, but not equal in beauty to ours; it is, however, much more moderate in price: two tumblers bought at Tchernigoff, of cut glass, and extremely thick, cost three rubles; and the glasses

bought at Kiev, are very handsome and good at twelve rubles per dozen. The printed cottons, of which almost the only manufactures are at Moscow, are very pretty, but will not bear washing; they cannot attain the art of fixing the colours, as in our prints; and they sell them, and all muslin goods, much dearer than we do. The population of Kiev may be stated at about twenty-five thousand.

I have before spoken of the beauty of the situation of Kiev; and the road going out, has equally fine and majestic scenery, with the entrance from the opposite side. The situation of all the large Continental towns, is evidently chosen for defence: of course the loftiest spots, are those selected for their sites, and you scarcely enter any of these towns, without having an immensely steep hill to ascend.

On taking leave of the Dnieper, I should remark, that the bear-hunt, which forms so excellent a diversion in North and Great Russia, is not known south of this river.

We passed one week at Kiev, and then con-

tinued our journey, making Human, a seat of the Countess Potosky, our next destination, as Mr. Y. wished to see two Englishmen resident there.

CHAP. VII.

Road from Kiev to Human—Human, a Seat of the Countess Potosky—Visit to Mr. Henley, an Englishman, Steward to the Countess—Tulchin, another Estate of the Countess—House and Garden—Balta—Stepp—Russian Cottages—Odessa.

From Kiev to Human, the road is very picturesque, but great part of it very dangerous, lying along the side of hills, which on one hand rise in majestic height above the traveller, while the other side presents a fearful and perpendicular descent. The road at this time was excellent for sledging, and where the hills would admit, we travelled with very great rapidity, making 355 versts, or 236 miles, in twenty-four hours, with all the impediments of frequently changing horses, and travelling over a hilly country. In this part of our journey, our carriage had again a very narrow escape from being precipitated down one of the precipices, owing to the care-

lessness of the driver; but a superintending Providence has protected us amidst dangers, and supported us amidst trials, giving strength to those who needed, and succouring the faint-hearted. With trembling thankfulness I look back upon the dangers we have escaped, and acknowledge the Omnipotent Power who has defended us throughout them.

Mr. Henley is steward to the Countess Potosky: the other Englishman here, is Mr. Wigful, a machine-maker, who is also in the employ of the Countess. Mr. Henley is a married man, and has been many years in his present situation, and by his care, and conscientious discharge of his duty to his employer, he has been able to bring up his family most respectably, and also to bring into high repute, the worth of English stewards. He has the civil rank of Major, and is a naturalized Russian. The present Mrs. Henley is his second wife, and sister to the wife of the English Consul at Odessa. I was received very pleasantly by her and Miss Henley, and experienced much kind attention from them, during the three days we remained at Human.

From this place we went to Tulchin, another village the property of the Countess Potosky, which is also under the management of an English steward, a Mr. Davison. Here we did not purpose staying, but unfortunately for us the Countess being here, and having a great deal of company with her, (amongst them the General-in-Chief Benningsen), we could not get horses to proceed immediately, and at last paid most extravagantly dear for them, being obliged to hire them of Jews, to take us from thence to Balta. The house of the Countess at Tulchin is a fine extensive building, forming three sides of a square, two stories high. Behind the house is a pretty garden, laid out in the English style, with grottoes, caves, &c. and a considerable sum of money has been expended upon it.

To Balta was our next point, and here we were again detained for want of horses; and in a visit we made to a proprietor here, who sent his sledge for me, and received us with all the good humour of Russian hospitality, it was proposed to send us forward with *oxen*. This, however,

with all our acquired patience under the difficulties and impediments of our journey, none of us thought we should like; and at length we bargained with some Russians to take us from thence to Odessa. Balta is the dirtiest town I ever saw; it is a centrical point where three roads meet, and travellers being then journeying to Kiev for the Contract, the number of horses kept at the post station was not sufficient to meet the accidental increase of demand. Here we were obliged to take our carriages off the sledges, and put them again on wheels.

On leaving Balta we entered upon a country the very reverse of what we had passed; a rich black soil, said to be most luxuriantly fertile. This, which is called Stepp, was a few years ago nearly the whole of it uninhabited; for the sake of increasing population, and its consequent advantageous results, the Emperor has to some persons made grants of land on this Stepp; to others he has sold land at a low rate, and it is now, in many parts, getting rather thickly peopled.

Some equipages belonging to the Count

Langeron, which were also going to Odessa, and were before us on the road, had pre-occupied the tracteers, and we were obliged to find quarters in the cottages of the Russian peasantry of the villages through which we passed. This circumstance we had no occasion to regret, as it gave us in all cases more comfortable lodging; and such provision or accommodation as they had, was also afforded with the good humour so peculiarly the leading trait in the Russian character. I had several opportunities of remarking the plenty and comfort of the Russian boor.

From Balta to Odessa is 240 versts by post-road, but across the Stepp 180 only. From Balta to the Crimea is all Stepp. We travelled now in very different style to that of sledging; the roads were heavy, and when we reached the town of Odessa, scarcely passable. We spent ten days at this place, in consequence of learning that a river we had to cross was impassable, on account of the state of the ice. Mr. Y. was well known, in particular to General Cobley, the Commandant, and to one or two merchants of the place. He had also a letter to Mr. Yeames, the British Consul, who

received us with the greatest attention, and whose family shewed much kindness to me and my children. We visited General Cobley also, who is an Englishman, but has long been in the Russian service. Admiral Mordvinoff married the sister of this gentleman, and to this circumstance was owing his first entering, and subsequent promotion to the rank he now holds.

The town of Odessa is a very flourishing seaport, and a most astonishing place, if it be remembered that about twenty years ago a few fishing huts comprised the whole of its inhabitants, and that in 1812 a third of its population was destroyed by the plague. It was founded in 1796, and to the Duke de Richelieu, Odessa owes whatever of prosperity it now enjoys, or whatever pre-eminence as a city it may hereafter attain. It is situated on a rock, and is very extensive, the style in which it is built making it cover a large quantity of ground: the streets run in parallel lines.

The bazars, or markets, occupy two large squares at the eastern and western extremity of the town. The merchants have their warehouses

attached to their houses, which are many of them only one story high, others one floor above the ground. As no part of the town is paved, it is in wet weather the dirtiest place I ever saw, except Balta; and in summer the dust is as intolerable as the dirt in winter. Here is a pretty theatre, but the different manner of lighting it makes it much less gay and pleasing than ours; the stage only is well illuminated, and the rest of the theatre almost dark. Italian operas, and Russian and French plays, are got up in pretty good style.

But that which is most worthy of remark at Odessa, is a very fine institution for the education of the young nobility, called the Lyceum. All the languages are taught here by different professors, and the various accomplishments required. It is considered a military establishment, and the students intended for the service, either in the navy or the army, have the rank of cadet given them on their entrance. A part of the institution is adapted for girls, and General Cobley's daughter was here.

The gardens at Odessa, though requiring much care in their infancy, yet are afterwards very

productive: the dryness of the soil and climate makes a long preparation requisite for the planting of trees; but having once taken root, they soon begin to bear, and yield abundantly. As a proof of this abundance, the prices of fruit the preceding year was mentioned at Mr. Yeames's table, as follow: Cherries gathered, six rubles per pood; the common sort three rubles per pood. Apricots twelve rubles per pood; of these there are from nine to twelve to the pound. Peaches ten for sixty kopeeks. Grapes twenty to thirty kopeeks per pound, but were then very dear. Pears fifty kopeeks per pound, two or three large Beurrè pears to a pound. Apples are sometimes twenty-two inches round; those of the Crimea are the finest in flavour I have ever tasted, very similar to that we call the Ripston pippin, but with the flavour of the pine-apple. Some of the most opulent inhabitants have houses or gardens in the country, a few versts from the town. There are some of these places very pretty, and they are resorted to as places of pleasure and amusement. The luxuriance of the soil and climate may be ascertained by stating, that a tree grafted

in November, will frequently bear the succeeding summer; the second year they are sure of fruit; and the third it is in full bearing.

As we now appeared to be drawing nigh to the close of our long and tedious journey, I was glad to take leave of Odessa, and be once more on the road, feeling confident that we should now meet with no material cause of detention.

CHAP. VIII.

Coblevka, the Estate of General Cobley, an Englishman, then Commandant of Odessa—Number of Horses, and Flocks of Spanish, and Tsegaiskie Sheep on the large Estates in the Neighbourhood of Odessa—Passage of the Bog, over the Ice—Nicolayeff—Cherson—Detention at the River Ingul—Post Station—Bereslaff—Passage of the Dnieper—Town of Perekop—Salt, and Salt Lakes—Tchumàk Caravans—Akmetchet, or Symphéropol—Tatar Town of Karasubazar—Arrival at Karagoss.

Our first day's journey took us to Coblevka, the village of General Cobley, where his steward had orders to receive and entertain us. We staid one day and two nights, for the gentlemen to see some flocks of Spanish sheep, and taboons of horses, in the neighbourhood. The proprietors of esates here, keep large flocks of

sheep and herds of cattle on their land, as the easiest and most profitable way of consuming its produce. Two, three, or five hundred horses are kept by one individual, and flocks and herds in proportion. There is one proprietor in this country, who possesses an estate of 50,000 desaiteens, and a flock of 50,000 sheep. He is a Frenchman, by name Reuvere, and is the original introducer of the Spanish sheep into South Russia. The Government promised to give him a desaiteen of land for every Spanish sheep he imported, and he agreed to bring 100,000, but completed only the half of what he engaged to do. This flock was out of our present route, but they saw that of a Mr. Pictêt, a Swiss gentleman, living near Coblevka, who had 6000 or 7000 Spanish sheep. Mr. Renard's flock, at Karaneeka, was said to be 5000. The common flocks, or, as they are called, the Tsegaiskie sheep, are from Moldavia, and generally from 1000 to 2000 in a flock. The management of these sheep is very different from the system pursued in England. They require being housed through the severe cold of the winter; and are

kept within high walled yards, to prevent the depredations of the wolf, which is here a frequent ravager.

The Bog, at the place we crossed, was three versts over. Our stay at Odessa had been prolonged, in consequence of its being considered unsafe to pass, and it was only the return of frost two nights before we left that place, that encouraged us to hope it might now be practicable; but when we reached the usual passage, we were told it was impossible; that the ice was so broken up, no men would venture to take us. Mr. Renard's village, where we slept, was five versts from this place; and not having had an equal number of passengers, the pass there appeared more likely to be safe. Having ascertained this the preceding night, after an early breakfast we set out for that part of our expedition, which, from the variable state of the weather, and the account of accidents that had reached us at Odessa, I had looked forward to with much dread. The carriages were got to the river-side, and drawn over by a number of men; myself and the children, and servant, went

over in sledges, with eight or ten men to each, to draw us, and the gentlemen walked. The ice was thawing fast, and in many places cracked, and very thin; but in other parts, where they had cut holes for the purpose of fishing, the pieces of ice taken out were nine inches thick. I sat in silent terror the whole way; yet feeling fully confident that the power of God was all-sufficient to protect us, if in his mercy he saw fit to do so.

Divested of the danger, it was a beautiful scene; but the greatest pleasure I experienced from it, was reaching the opposite side in safety; and much reason had we to rejoice, as was immediately after proved. We were compelled to leave part of our carriages behind, until we could send post-horses from Nicolayeff for them, and we learnt from the servants, that in one hour after we passed, two carriages going over with horses, broke the ice; the carriages fell in, and the horses narrowly escaped; this happened a second time, and again they had the good fortune to get out. After these, no carriages ventured to attempt passing there; and the

breaking up of the rivers unavoidably caused some days' stoppage of the communication. Sometimes a passage is cut through the ice for the ferry-boat, if the thaw be not rapid enough to prevent the necessity of doing it.

Nicolayeff is five versts beyond this passage of the Bog; the road thither, a heavy sand. There is a good trade carried on in fish, of which a great profusion is brought fresh to market, which is bought extremely cheap; salt fish is likewise sold in large quantities. We purchased a sudac, weighing twelve pounds, for one ruble and twenty kopeeks, which in English money is one shilling; or, one penny per pound.

Here are a large naval academy, and an hospital, both occupying a great space of ground, and having a very good appearance. There is also a small dock-yard, in which an eighty-four gun ship was then building. We staid for horses one night at Nicolayeff, and then proceeded. There are three stations between that place and Cherson, where we arrived late in the evening; but finding horses, we determined to go forward, and the next stage brought us to the side of the river

Ingul, a branch of the Dnieper. The wind blew hard, and the rain (the first we had seen since we left Riga), fell heavily. As there was a considerable quantity of ice in the river, and the night was so stormy, (the wind driving against the passage), the men refused to take us over; which compelled us to remain until the following day.

I should in vain attempt to describe this miserable place, dignified by the name of a post-station. It looked like some rude hovel, the shelter of banditti, and the yemtcheks and people about appeared as ferocious and uncivilized as the place itself. It was literally a large hovel, the thatched roof unceiled, and the only division or break in the length of it, was the oven or stove, which projected about one-third of the length of the room, making the space left on the side, dark and gloomy, while the top of the stove, or benches, in this darkened recess, served as a sleeping apartment for its inmates. That part of the hovel in front of the stove, was lighted by the glare of a large fire, burning in the oven, and shewed a long table, with benches on either

side for seats, its only furniture. Here it was impossible to lie down, or to venture in such company to close the eyes: I recollected the comfort of the Russian cottages, which we had before experienced, and dispatched our Russian servant to find us quarters in the village. He soon returned successful, and we exchanged the most horrible place I entered throughout our journey, for a neat warm cottage, and the smiles of good humour and welcome. Here, upon our accustomed beds of hay, or straw, or on the benches around the room, we rested, and slept quietly till morning.

The passing the Ingul was tedious, but not dangerous. We went over in one of the ferries which I have before described, and the floating ice alone caused any impediment to us. Two stations more brought us to the town of Beres-laff.

Throughout the last stage the road was exceedingly bad, having to ascend and descend two or three such hills as, in the outset of the journey, I should have conceived impassable for any carriage; and these were worse than any

we had passed, on account of their being a stony rock, and the road exceedingly rough over them. On all such occasions, our English servant, who rode on the dickey of the britchka, was our guard, walking behind, or by the side of the carriage, up or down hill, wherever there was any danger. It was late when we reached Bereslaff, and still later when the rest of our party arrived, the drivers, who had set out most unwillingly, overturning one of the kibitkas, and declaring that the wolves had frightened the horses, and occasioned the accident.

At Bereslaff we had to cross the Dnieper, which we were told was still not safe to go over, on account of the floating ice. We staid two nights here, and then, by dint of obtaining the interference of the Gorodnetchie, and shewing a billet given by Count Langeron to expedite us, we contrived to convince them that the passing the Dnieper must by this time be perfectly safe. We went over in a boat, which took two carriages at a time. The Dnieper is a remarkably fine river in the spring and summer, but at this period of the year it is shallow, and

much narrower: the melting of the snow in the spring, occasions an immense increase of the water, and it is then a majestic-looking river.

We were now seventy-eight versts from Perekop, the frontier town of the Crimea, during which nothing worthy notice occurred.

The town of Perekop is not large, and has nothing remarkable to recommend it to notice but the salt lakes in its vicinity, from which last year (1815) four or five million of poods of salt were taken. One merchant at Perekop has a heap of salt lying in the ground, and covered with straw, &c. to defend it from heat, that contains 250,000 poods. The crown revenue last year from this was 2,800,000 rubles, the duty upon it being forty kopeeks per pood. Salt, in Perekop, sells at fifty kopeeks, and any one sending a cart and pair of oxen, may have salt from the lakes at the time it is taken out, for paying the government duty only. Perekop has a garrison, and is governed by a mayor, or Gorodnetchie. After leaving the town, we passed by the lakes, which of course present nothing very striking to the eye at this time of year. Perekop stands

about the centre of the isthmus, which at the narrowest part is four versts from the Black Sea to that of Azoff.

We passed on our road several caravans of Tchumàks, or Little Russians, with their four-wheeled carriages drawn by oxen. The particular construction of the Tchumàk waggon is worthy of notice. The wheels are young trees, (elm, ash, oak, &c.), which being cut down, are stripped of the bark, split, and cut into proper lengths; these are put over a strong fire, till they are bent sufficiently for the two ends to meet. This operation is effected by fixing them around a solid post, shaped for the purpose, which stands three or four feet above the ground. This work is often done in the woods, when the rim of the wheel is bent around one of the trees, and there they are shaped and burnt. Broad pieces of the bark of the lime tree, fastened to the frame of the body of the waggon, serve to hold the contents, such as salt and corn. Each waggon holds from one to two, and even two and a half tons weight of salt or corn. The Tchumàks travel in caravans

of twenty or forty waggons, or even more, together; and whenever they unyoke their oxen to feed them, they previously draw up the caravan to the side, or out of the main road, forming a square, or rather an oblong, with the waggons, placing them close together in rows, and leaving only a sufficient interval between the rows to permit the drivers to pass. The extraordinary journies which these Tchumàks undertake with their loaded waggons is very remarkable—setting out from Riga, or other post-towns of the Baltic, in the spring, when the snow is dissolved, and travelling to Moscow, Kaluga, Tula, &c. and then to the Black Sea, with corn, and returning laden with salt in the autumn.

For the conveyance of lighter goods, the telega, a cart drawn by one horse, is used; and the transport of goods in Russia by either of these means, is very cheap.

To Akmetchet, or Sympheropol, is 130 versts. We staid here only a few hours, and it was a cold snowy day, which prevented my going into the town. The gentlemen went to call on the Governor, Mr. Beresdina, who has established

some manufactures on his property, and with whom Mr. Y. was previously acquainted. One of them, a fabric for blue broad-cloth, of a very fine and good quality, at fifteen rubles the archeen, which is two-thirds of an English yard.

From Sympheropol we soon journeyed on to Karasubazar. This is the first Tatar town, and is much more singular than pleasing: narrow and irregular streets, presenting a most extraordinary number of shops, occupied by Tatars, Jews, Armenians, Russians, and Greeks. For the sale of fruit alone, there are said to be two hundred shops: here are dried fruits of all kinds; apples in profusion; nuts in great abundance, and so well preserved, that they are quite unlike, and much superior to the walnuts in England at this time of year. There seems about the same number of shops for the sale of Tatar shoes. Every article of sale brought into the Crimea, is to be had cheaper here than elsewhere. We staid a day and two nights, and made purchases of provisions, &c. to carry with us to Karagoss, and reached that

place in the afternoon of the third of February, most thankful to have completed our undertaking, and arrived at our long-wished-for destination.

CHAP. IX.

Additional Notes made in returning from the Crimea and Odessa, in the Route to England, on the Towns of Nicolayeff and Odessa.

In my return from the Crimea to England, I repassed in the same track from Karagoss to Odessa, the places that in my route I have before noticed; but as I was resident two months at Nicolayeff, I subjoin a few particulars of that place. I could not fail to remark the many improvements of this town under the administration of the present Commander-in-Chief, Vice-Admiral Greig, a man so high in estimation, as to be admired even by those who envy him.

The office of Admiralty is held here, though the rendezvous of the Russian fleet is at Sevastopol. In the dock-yard we saw completed and launched a 74 gun ship, and several others of different descriptions were on the stocks. The fleet generally goes out about the month of

May, for a cruize of three months, the Admiral taking the command for a part, if not the whole of the time.

An observatory is just established here; and there is a public school for the children of sailors and soldiers; and many public edifices for the different offices of government. Besides a large garden attached to the Admiral's house, of his own planting, there is a public promenade or gardens in the town; and the pleasure grounds at his country-house, three or four versts distant, are materially enlarged and improved. These are the resort of all the principal inhabitants, and always open. An extensive vineyard too has been lately planted, which looks very healthy and flourishing, and from its grapes the first wine has been made at Nicolayeff, which I tasted at the Admiral's table. It may be imagined what an improvement the quantity of trees now planted is to the appearance of the town, where before scarcely one was to be seen.

The population is reckoned at from seven to eight thousand stationary residents; of sailors,

soldiers, shipwrights, &c. about five thousand. According to the census of 1819, there were 1400 houses, but their number is daily increasing. Their method of building cottages is both cheap and expeditious, and very warm and comfortable when well finished. The corner posts are of wood, proportioned to the size of the house to be built, with light rafters and beams, and spars at regular distances for the walls, over which is laid, both within and without, a covering of reeds, and this is drawn and plastered; the roof is of reeds also. When the plastering is dry they are white-washed, and the window-frames and doors painted, which renders them the neatest cottages I have seen. In this manner the sheep-sheds, barns, and out-houses of the pretty estates that skirt the banks of the Ingul, are erected; and it has been estimated, that a very good farm-house of five rooms, with kitchen and out-buildings as above-mentioned, may be built for 100*l.* or 2000 rubles. The wood for such purposes is bought in the timber-yards, ready cut to any dimensions required: it is reasonable and plentiful, being

brought here for Government in great quantities: its quality is soft, and not very durable. Both at Odessa and in the Crimea, it is considerably dearer than at Nicolayeff. The reeds are also bought very cheap: they grow up the Bog and Ingul in great quantities, and are of an amazing size.

The situation of Nicolayeff is at the confluence of the Bog and Ingul: the former is a very fine river, about three versts wide opposite to the town, and widening gradually to about seven or eight versts at its discharge into the mouth of the Dnieper, which communicates with the Black Sea. The price of transporting corn from hence to Odessa, (in which market it always bears a better price), is about seventy or eighty kopeeks per tchetvert. Odessa is 117 versts from this place.

The Ingul is a smaller river, but its banks are considered fertile and rich. The Stepp soil around Nicolayeff, is a good sand upon a yellow loam; in some parts on the banks of the Bog, it is a dead heavy sand; but this extends a short distance only.

The banks of rivers are, in this neighbourhood, most eligible situations, on account of the scarcity of spring water, for which it is often necessary to send a considerable distance, and each family, both in the town, and its vicinity, must keep a water-cart to fetch its daily supply. The water of the Ingul is never salt; that of the Bog is brackish when the wind sets up the mouth of the river. From these two rivers, the ice-cellars of the neighbourhood are abundantly supplied; and that which in England is considered a luxury, and brought only to the tables of the rich and great, here cools the drink of the peasant, as well as his master; and an ice-house is as essential here, as any of the domestic offices are in England. I have seen the ice on the Bog, double the thickness spoken of in my journey.

The firing used here is either straw, or kisseek, which is the manure of the cow-yard, cut in the spring, and properly dried for the purpose: it is sold at twenty rubles per fathom, and is used for the kitchen. Straw is from two rubles, to two rubles and fifty kopeeks per load,

and is the only firing used here for heating the stoves. In many of the villages, near to those parts of the rivers which most abound with reeds, they constitute the chief, or only firing; yet the perfection of their stoves is such, that they are always adapted to the material by which they are to be heated, and they always produce a heat which makes the rigour of their winters not felt in the house.

The market of Nicolayeff is held on Mondays and Fridays: it begins soon after day-break. Not only provisions, but all sorts of things are brought into market for sale; more especially such articles as are either made by the sailors, or are worn by, or required for their use, or for the peasantry. The beef brought to market here, is the very best I have seen in Russia; the mutton not so good. In the immediate vicinity of this place, there are few flocks kept, and those few are small ones. Of oxen they have large herds, these being more profitable. The butchers generally buy them poor in the spring, and send them, at a very trifling expence, to feed on the choicest Stepps

till autumn, when they are killed for their tallow; the fore quarters are boiled down for the fat, and the hind quarters of the bullock may then be bought to salt for winter use, as low as two rubles, to two rubles and fifty kopeeks per pood, which latter is about seven kopeeks per pound.

The fish market is most abundantly supplied; in summer, in too great profusion for the consumption of the town; in the spring and autumn they salt great quantities for winter provision, and on account of their fasts. The fish caught here, are the sturgeon, the beluga, the sudac, pike, carp, tench, thornback, bitchkie, perch, roach, dace, bream, whiting, plaice, and sometimes turbot. Almost all fish here, are infinitely larger, as well as finer flavoured, than those of the same kinds in England*.

Vegetables are all very dear, especially those

* The largest belugas caught in the Ural, weigh often five and twenty pood, and yield five pood of kaviarre. The sturgeon are about a fathom in length; the largest weigh five pood, and frequently contain a pood of kaviarre.—*Tooke's Survey*, vol. iii. p. 166.

which require attention in raising, and much water; and yet all may be cultivated on the Stepp, except cabbages, which are brought from Cherson to the Nicolayeff market, and are worth about 12 rubles the hundred. Onions are brought from the Crimea; so also are grapes and apples, and no fruit is abundant. Colonial produce is here, and in all other towns, somewhat dear. Crimean and Greek wines are to be had cheap. French wines much cheaper than in England. Bourdeaux 25 rubles per vedro, (10 quarts); Marcellas 30 rubles per vedro; sherry and Madeira 35 rubles each; brandy of two sorts, distilled from corn, the best of which is 14 rubles per vedro: there is also brandy distilled from fruit, which they call French brandy; this is somewhat dearer; and Cognac is 5 rubles the bottle. Malt cannot be bought except in very small quantities, and that by favour; but a family who can manage to make their own malt, will have no interference from the excise officer, to prevent their brewing it, if it be for home consumption, and not for sale. This is equally applicable to all other parts of Russia.

At the time I was at Nicolayeff, there were several English residents, though not all likely to be stationary there; as some were employed in superintending particular departments in the dock-yard, and were to go from thence to Cherson.

I met at Nicolayeff, one of those gentlemen who were sent over to England some years ago, by the Russian government, to learn the system of English agriculture. He appeared to remember with pleasure, the time he passed in England. The policy of a plan, which seeks the attainment of knowledge by means unfitted for its end, is not very apparent; and it is to be regretted, that men of at least common capacity, were not selected for the acquiring a system, which was thought deserving of so much trouble and expence. I remark this, because it is not the only instance in Russia, in which the want of skill in the professors, has endangered the reputation of that science or art they were expected to teach.

I was here during the celebration of the great festival of Easter, which has been so well, and

correctly described by Dr. Clarke, in his account of Moscow.

I found, on revisiting Odessa, that in the interval of four years, the alterations in that place were very great, and its improvements most striking. Its size, its population, its importance, are daily increasing. The number of its inhabitants is now estimated at 40,000. In the year 1819 seven hundred houses were built in this town, and plans were laid out for eight hundred more the following year. In one year 2000 ships visited this port, each of which took, on an average, 2000 tchetverts, or Russian quarters of corn. The price of transporting it, rose in proportion to the demand, and five to six rubles per tchetvert was paid by the merchant to transport the grain from the warehouses, (or, as they are there termed, magazines), to the quay.

The price of corn in the Odessa markets changes from 12 to 30, and even up to 40 rubles per tchetvert, according to the demand for it in the Mediterranean ports. It is seldom so low as 12 rubles; and from 15 to 20 rubles per tchetvert, may be considered a fair average price.

The Lyceum continues to rise in estimation, and as the terms of admittance are considerably increased, it being now 2000 rubles, or upwards, per annum, it becomes more select; and in fact none but the first nobility can afford to place their children at this establishment.

There are several English families now resident at Odessa, and in its neighbourhood, almost all of whom are engaged in commerce.

COLONIES OF NEW RUSSIA.

CHAP. I.

Introductory Remarks—Of the Colonization of the Taurida—Division of the Colonists—Boundary Line of Colonization—Of the Odessa Colony—System adopted by the Russian Government—Time of the earliest establishment of the Colonies—Poll-Tax—Power of the Officers of the Crown over the Boors or Peasants—Villages of the Crimea.

The History of the Crimea has been detailed by many writers, from the time of its earliest inhabitants, the Taurians, almost to the present period. Of these histories, the most accredited is that by Sisterenchovitch, (a Polish nobleman), and published soon after the con-

quest by the Russians. He has been followed, amongst other and better writers, by M. Reuilly, who accompanied Monsieur le Duc de Richelieu, when he was first appointed to the government of the Taurida. Reuilly was supposed to have been sent thither by Buonaparte, to sound the feelings of the Tatars, and ascertain the political state of the Crimea. His brief detail of the ancient history of this country is a recapitulation of the above-mentioned writer; and in his continuation of its history, he had an able coadjutor and friend in Professor Pallas: nevertheless, there are subjects where the hasty judgment of a Frenchman is marked, or where the interval of time since he wrote, has produced change.

These alterations it is my intention to notice, and to fill up the small space which other writers have left, by giving some, though but an imperfect account, of the colonization of New Russia, or of the Taurida in general, of which the Crimea, it is well known, forms but a part.

New Russia comprehends the governments of

Taurida, Ekaterinoslaff, and Cherson: extending eastward, it includes the district of Ekaterinodar in Asia; and to the west, we may comprise within its boundaries, Bessarabia, and such part of Moldavia as is now subject to Russia.

The whole of the government of the Taurida, with the exception of the Crimea, is one united mass of colonization. Of course, in point of numbers, the Russians rank first, and occupy by far the greatest part of this vast space, which, previously to its conquest from the Tatars, was a flat and fertile waste of interminable extent of pasture land, over which the Nomadic nation of Nogay Tatars wandered with their flocks and herds. It is now colonized by, 1st, Little Russians; 2nd, Great Russians; 3rd, Nogay Tatars; 4th, Greeks; 5th, Germans; 6th, Armenians; and, 7th, Bulgarians. The two latter are comparatively few in number to the others.

The boundary line of colonization might be extended to the Danube, including Bessarabia and Moldavia, which assuredly form a most material part of this immense colony, which is twice as large as Great Britain, and its soil

certainly thrice as fertile as that of England in general; so much of which requires artificial help, and is made good and preserved so at great expence, while much is incapable of any great improvement. But in the country we are describing, Nature reigns in her greatest luxuriance of vegetation, and varies little in the fertility of the soil. From the Don to the Danube, from Poland to the Black Sea, the soil is, with few exceptions, a dark putrid loam of great depth. This great colony likewise possesses the advantage of being traversed in almost every direction by some of the largest rivers in Europe—the Danube, the Dniester, the Bog, the Dnieper, the Don, and the Kuban; the smallest of which is in magnitude superior to the Thames or the Severn: the Danube, Dnieper, Bog, and Don are alone navigable; the remainder fertilize the colony through which they flow, but do not contribute to float its produce to the sea.

Upon this large and promising tract, the land measurers of the government, in the surveys which they were instructed to make, were ordered to set apart all the best spots, for the eco-

nomical, or crown boors; and this was effected, by fixing upon all the land on both sides of the great rivers above mentioned, from ten to fifteen miles on either side, right and left of the same. The allotments to each village, were of course granted in proportion to the number of the colonists to be fixed there, but, universally speaking, the quantity of soil thrown to each village, would appear to us to be extremely large, and certainly out of all proportion to the population established upon it at the time, or even compared with what it has become since. The colony of Odessa, or the district around that city, consists of nearly five millions of acres of land; and as the whole contains only 180 lots, the size of each allotment averages 28,000 acres: many villages are much larger, and some of them have 100,000 acres, all of it fertile land. A village of the last named quantity, was generally considered capable of supporting at its establishment, from two, to three thousand revision souls, or twice that number of persons, or about forty acres per male; or, at three revision souls per family, one hundred and twenty acres

per house. This proportion, if we consider the unvaried fertility of the soil, is unquestionably very great; and the more especially, when it is further considered, that the whole of it was a vast plain of pasture, to convert which into fields of corn, required no extraordinary exertion or expence.

The great misfortune which has appeared to operate in counteracting the beneficial effects, which might otherwise naturally have been expected to result from so munificent a distribution of the richest soil in a fine climate, contiguous to navigation, the sea, and great markets, has flowed from the mode of fixing these colonies. The feudal system being adopted, every house in a large village was consequently huddled and jammed together, with no other separation between house and house, than space just sufficient to enable the colonists to build their outhouses around a small yard. The evils resulting from this system, are in every point of view, great beyond calculation. To mention only two or three immediately affecting the colonist himself, we may observe, in seed, hay, and harvest-

time, each family (leaving the old, and the very young at home), quit the village, with their teams, seed, provisions, fuel, &c., and take up their quarters from five, to ten, or fifteen miles distant, until the work which carried them there, be finished, when they remove back to it again.

During this interval, the shepherd, the herdsman, the hogherd, each collect the live stock of the community, drive them to pasture, and back, and tend them in the field. Thus the murrain, and other distempers, have no chance of being confined to the spot where they first broke out, but ravage the herds and flocks of an entire village, in which it not unusually happens that three-fourths of the whole number are swept away. Fires (which frequently take place), destroy whole villages in a single night, and often, with immense quantities of corn in the straw.

At every revision or census of the inhabitants, the total quantity of land is regularly subdivided in such a manner amongst the whole number of revision males, that each has a part proportionate to the quantity to be distributed; but all of it is

intermixed. No family has the right of securing to itself the allotted share for any greater length of time than the space of one revision, that is, three years; or for a fallow and two crops of corn. The population is then counted over again, and a fresh distribution takes place. Notwithstanding this apparently equal arrangement, it always happens that some boors in every village, by superior industry and fortuitous circumstances, continue to be richer than the rest, and that others, by laziness, drunkenness, small families, and sundry accidents, remain in a state of comparative poverty: so that one boor frequently serves another, letting out his own labour and land to his more fortunate neighbours.

This very system, however, having subsisted throughout every part of the empire of Russia from the remotest antiquity, it was not to be expected that any other, or better plan of colonizing their fertile deserts, could have been adopted. Bigotted as the boors are universally allowed to be to their ancient customs in every country, here the whole power of govern-

ment would have been utterly unavailing, to bring about so great an improvement as that of settling each family immediately on the land intended for cultivation. The advantages claimed in favour of the Russian plan of colonization, over that now alluded to, flows from the principles of despotic government. The cultivators of the soil are slaves, and as beasts of burden, their prosperity is no otherwise considered of consequence by the government or nobles, than as they contribute to pay poll-tax, and furnish recruits to the former, and labour the landed property of the latter. It is obvious that these services are much more easily exacted from the inhabitants of a village, whose houses are built contiguous to each other, than when they are remote, and dispersed over a wide extent of country. Added to which, is the superior facility of governing such villages; of calling them out to labour; of watching their motions; of receiving the orders of the government or their masters, and especially of calling out the recruits; very few of which would be procured, if each family did not watch his neighbours'

actions, in this, as in many other of the above cases, and report their observations to the officers of government: all of which are objects of the very first magnitude*. It is, however, equally clear, that agriculture cannot flourish under such conditions; and the extraordinary fertility of the soil, while liable to these and other objections flowing from the same source, has alone contributed to the support of this barbarous system.

The earliest establishment of the colonization of Russia may be dated from the beginning of Catherine the Second's reign. The revision of their numbers is taken every third year; and all who are registered on the day of the revision, (which is ascertained over the whole empire at the same time), are liable till the new revision, to a poll-tax of five rubles per male head, includ-

* It is essential to remember, that in all the demands of the government on the peasant, whether for personal service poll-tax, or recruits, &c. for the sum to be paid, the service to be demanded, or the recruit to be furnished, government calls, not on the individual, but the village, so that if any be wanting, the rest are liable.

ing all ages, whether any of them die or not in the intermediate time; but, on the other hand, all the new-born are exempt during the same period.

The boors are subject to many vexations, from the abuse of power by the officers of the government belonging to the Landed Tribunal. Armed with the most absolute authority, they are chiefly men of low rank and humble estate, and receiving salaries of from two to three, or four guineas per annum, they have recourse to all the abundant means within their power of extending that income. *Apparently* to deliver the orders of the police, though often to live in free quarters, these men are seen at all times, and in all places, putting into requisition the boors and their horses, and galloping over the district, to the annoyance of the peasant, who is frequently called from the harvest field, or other important occupations, to furnish the required duty. They eat and drink wherever they go; and every pretext is laid hold of to oblige the boor to furnish contributions of whatever he possesses, for them to carry home to their families.

The advantages of their situation seem however to overcome all the impediments in their way; and that the boors are increasing in wealth and population, is at once evident, from the immense supplies of wheat which (independently of Poland) are annually sent from the Russian colonies to the ports of the Black Sea; and so superior are the Russians in number to the remainder of the colonists, that when compared with all the other settlements put together, they may be estimated in the proportion of thirty to one.

The villages of the Crimea are much smaller in general than those of the district north of Perekop, but the regulation of them is the same. The proportion of colonists to that of free settlers in the peninsula, is much smaller than in any other part of this great colony.

CHAP. II.

Governor-General of the Tauride—Governor and Government of the Krim—Law Offices —The existing Abuses in them—Causes thereof—Forms observed, in the several Journies of His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Russia throughout his Dominions—Right to purchase Slaves dependent on Rank—Civilization promoted by every means, and the promulgation of Christianity sanctioned and encouraged by the Monarch, and the most powerful Princes of his Realm.

To the Duke de Richelieu, the great benefactor of Odessa, and of all New Russia, his friend Count Langeron has succeeded, who by virtue of his office as Governor-General of the Tauride, is of course the head of the subordinate government of the Krim; and to him appeals may be made, and petitions sent, as in our courts of law, referring from a lower to an higher judicature. The chief management of its affairs

are, however, vested in the Governor of the Crimea, who has his residence at Akmetchet, or Sympheropol. Under him are the tribunals of law, called the Zemskoe Sood, or Land Tribunal; the Oyaeznoe Sood, or District Court, for matters pertaining to the nobility; the Gybernskoe Pravlania, and a smaller court, which is attached to each hundred, called Pravlania, from the Russian word "*pravet,*" to set right: here lesser grievances are often adjusted, without the necessity of carrying the appeal to a higher court. The Zemskoe Sood, or Landed Tribunal, is headed by an officer entitled Capitaine Espravnek, or, as the Tatars and Turks call him, Kai-ma-kan. Below him are the Zasiedattels, and one of whom is commonly or frequently a Tatar; the others Russian. In the district of Kaffa there are four of these, and at their command a certain number of strapchies, or clerks. The Espravnek is, or ought to be, of noble rank, and of some consequence in the country, as the power vested in his hands is very great.

The Russians have a proverb, which runs

thus: "*Sood lubeet Zoloto, ah strapchie sirebro,*" or, "The sood love gold, and their clerks silver." As I quote from a Russian book published in 1815, I cannot be said to satirize, when I confess my belief of their proverb being a true one; and my knowledge that the government of the Krim is somewhat famous for verifying it. "Which," said a gentleman, who was neither an Englishman or a Russian—"which of the two do you think most likely to succeed in this cause? My friend is ready to withdraw his claim, if it be not founded in justice and truth." This was the inquiry of a gentleman for his friend, to one of the Zasiedattels. "How much money will your friend give to have it settled?" was the reply. Whatever strictness or conscientious dealing mark the heads of government in the Crimea, the underlings, who live upon such small salaries, take a watchful advantage of every opportunity for increasing them, which their almost unlimited authority so frequently presents them with. "I cannot take your money for what I am going to do," said one of them, when a twenty-five ruble note was offered to him—"it is my duty

to do it; but if you choose to make me any present"—a bow, which promised acceptance, finished the speech.

The salary affixed to the office of Espravnek is 250 rubles per annum; which, it has been confidently said, that he is able to stretch to 10,000. Whether it be really the case, that he is gifted with the touch of Midas to such an extent, I have not authority enough to vouch for; but it is an undoubted fact, that his nominal income is very much below what he really receives, and that all above the sum allowed by government, is extorted from the Tatars, or received by way of present, which the donors in most cases are compelled to make, to avoid worse consequences.

They have another proverb, which will speak for them better than I can—it is this: "*Nebo Vicokie, ah Gocydar dalokie;*" or, "Heaven is high, and the Emperor is a long way off." Yet the portrait of his Imperial Majesty is set up in all their law offices, and all heads are uncovered with the greatest reverence to the picture, and an outward demeanour kept up, as though he were indeed present to behold them; they, how-

ever, tenaciously remember, "*Gocydar dalokie!*" This corruption, as may be reasonably expected, defeats its own purpose; and the man who might possibly remain for years undisturbed in the same office, is quickly removed, with the hope of obtaining in another, a better and more faithful servant. The causes which contribute to this depravity are several; but chiefly the very low salaries which, in the civil service especially, is awarded to the servants of the crown; and, according to their own proverb, its distance from the seat of government makes corruption and fraud more easy. Another cause of this monstrous depravity is eminently owing to the total neglect of every species of education amongst the Russians; for this description of people positively know nothing more of it than how to hold a pen, or how to copy or scribble voluminous reports, and other documents of their numerous tribunals.

In an empire so extensive as that of Russia, whatever be the efforts, whatever the wishes of him who governs, it is scarcely to be expected their influence, so powerfully felt at the centre,

can extend with equal force to those distant provinces, which his smile seldom visits, his presence rarely cheers. Yet here, though depravity marks so many individuals, and they mar the endeavours which the Emperor is continually making for the universal benefit of his subjects, even here, he is beloved and respected, reverenced and obeyed.

His visit to the Crimea was a subject of joyful expectation before it took place; and the mild and conciliating manners of this most powerful monarch, won the hearts of the humblest of his subjects: few there are who do not boast of having seen the Emperor Alexander, and not a few who had the honour to converse with him. Divested of the parade of state, he travelled without any military escort, and won, or secured the confidence of his people, by that he evinced in them. Yet, to man is allotted no good without alloy; and the same sun which nourishes and brings to perfection the healthy and nutritious plant, draws up also the most noxious weeds. As, however, cultivation overpowers and destroys their number, so the spread-

ing of civilization, will lessen many of the moral evils which now exist.

The manner in which his Imperial Majesty travels, and the forms observed throughout his journey, it may be well to notice. Previous to his departure from the capital (where he is seldom very long stationary), the route he determines to take is marked out, and those places at which he will stop; to these are affixed the date, and time of the day he purposes to be there, from which he seldom deviates: of this list, several copies are printed, and distributed to the different governors of provinces through which the Imperial suite is to pass; the governor distributes these lists to the Espravneks, and it is their duty to assemble all the horses of the district to the different stations, to be in readiness before the appointed time. This, in a district sometimes containing 20,000 souls, is no inconsiderable office; and in the Crimea is said to have afforded a golden harvest to those who had the trouble of it; for the rich and noble bribed high to be exempted from sending their horses, and those of the poor only were sent to this service.

The Emperor's suite on this occasion, consisted of twenty-three carriages, all of which were drawn by eight horses, except two or three occupied by the domestics, which had six only. The carriage of a general officer preceded the Imperial carriage, that all might be in readiness, and the work of changing horses was almost instantaneous, where the Emperor found no inducement to delay.

No foreigner can now purchase slaves in Russia, and a late excellent ukaz has enacted, that a Russian, or naturalized subject, must have civil rank, equal to that of Lieutenant in the army, or one degree lower only in the military service, to admit of his purchasing an estate, and consequently possessing slaves. Formerly the wearing a sword, which, raising a man one degree above the private or common soldier, constituted him a noble, was a privilege that also gave him this power of purchasing property, and possessing slaves.

The nobles, however, may sell property to their own slaves, who thus, through the favour of the monarch, are encouraged and stimulated

to industry, by the promised reward of freedom. The abridgment of this right of purchase, by slow and gradual means, is one of the most needful steps towards emancipation; and while his Imperial Majesty thus forwards, and endeavours to promote this christian work, he sees the necessity of civilization going hand in hand with freedom.

The free-born Briton, will perhaps think it impossible, that emancipation should not give happiness the moment it is conferred; yet, certain it is, that the Russian peasant is happier, and has fewer wants unsatisfied, than the peasantry of that country whose liberty is her boast; and we had, during our journey across the Continent of Russia, more than one proof given to us, that this blessing, in the hands of those who know not how to use it, soon ceases to be valued, even by themselves.—"Take us back again to your service," said the slaves of a Polish nobleman of high rank, who had given freedom to one of his villages—"when we were with you, we wanted nothing; now we are free, we want every thing!"—So true is it, that the

Russian, accustomed from his infancy to find all his wants supplied upon the estate to which he belongs, is too thoughtless and improvident, to have the care and provision for a family, devolve upon himself.

That civilization will not raise the Russian boor to a more respectable rank in the scale of human existence, who can doubt? It is the want of light, and not the incapacity to receive it, which makes him what he is. The progress of civilization must, however, be slow in this vast empire, even though every incitement be given by him who is universally believed to have the best interests of his subjects at heart. The increased facility afforded to commerce, the encouragement given to foreign settlers, the ready attention shown to strangers, the aid granted to public works, and the increase of manufactures, all speak an awakened, and an anxious attention to the public good. Knowledge, though she slowly dawn in the Russian horizon, will yet spread increasing brightness over their hemisphere. The bigot bonds of the priesthood will be broken, the interest of the

nobles united with that of the people, and industry will supply the increasing wants, which freedom must produce. May we not with sanguine expectation look for such a result, when we see christianity assisting, by her pure and energetic light, to dispel the gloom of ignorance, and find the cause supported, not only by the monarch himself, but also by the most powerful princes of the realm, and the dignitaries of the church, who with a most honourable zeal have given their sanction, and lent their aid, to those who, knowing and estimating the important truths of religion, desire to spread wide the blessings, and dispense its gifts around a dark and sinful world*.

* Amongst many of the uncivilized hordes subjected to Russia, missionaries are now residing, and schools are establishing. The northern, the southern, and the eastern extremities of this vast empire, are now visited by these messengers of peace; to those who were in darkness, a light hath sprung up, and the rose will yet bloom in the desert.

Since I left South Russia, the establishment of two missionaries in the Crimea has taken place; and the Missionary Register of January 1823, states the return of the Sultan

Katte Ghery to the peninsula, who in company with Mr. Lewis Way, and a Polish Rabbi, visited it during my residence there: the school now proposed was then talked of. That the Tatars will be won to confidence by the mild and gentle demeanour of christian ministers, I feel little doubt; and this confidence once perfected, and schools established with any success, a more abundant harvest may be hoped for from the Crimean Tatars than from any other of the Mahommedan subjects of Russia. The residence of the Sultan (the acknowledged descendant of their Khans), may be expected to have great weight and influence in favour of the cause he has engaged in; and I am induced to think, no missionaries will have fewer hardships and privations, or fewer impediments to contend against, than those of Crim Tatary. Should the one great difficulty of exciting the Tatar mind to active enquiry, be accomplished, we shall perhaps soon have cause to rejoice in the fruit of their labours. Since it hath pleased the Lord of the harvest to send forth these his labourers, may he bless their ministry with increase, and satisfy the poor with bread.

I subjoin from Baron de Tott's Memoirs, an explanation of the rank of Sultan.

"The word Sultan is a title given to the Ottoman princes born while their fathers were in possession of the throne, and to those of the Ginzuisian family. It is pronounced Sooltan, and no doubt is the same with Soudan, which in Egypt may signify king; but in Turkey or Tartary conveys no idea of

sovereign authority. The title of Cham (or Khan) is assumed by the sovereign of the Tartars, and is equivalent to that of Shah, which signifies king among the Persians."—"The epithet Sultan, therefore, is bestowed on him who enjoys the right of succession; and this, by the Turkish law, belongs to the eldest of the family."

CHAP. III.

Commission for Examining the Titles of Disputed Lands—Size of Estates in the Crimea—Income Tax—The Government of the Peninsula somewhat more independent than other parts of Russia—Of the Merchants, and the Rules and Regulations to which they are subject—Of Recruits—Sea-port Town of Kaffa, or Theodosia—Its Government—M. Engell, a late Governor—Revenue—Comparative Statement of its former Splendour, and its present Condition—Free School—Museum—Trade.

The Commission for examining the titles of disputed lands, called in Russ *Spornié Commissié,* seems to have been very unsuccessful in its labours; the boundaries of estates in the Crimea are still very indistinctly known, and many, if not most of them, are involved in a perplexity, which appears to be hopeless from its long continuance. The size of the largest

estates in the Crimea, are not to be compared with those of the colonies on the northern shores of the Black Sea, and Asoph; but they greatly exceed our ideas of a large estate, some few containing twelve thousand desaiteens, or twenty-eight thousand English acres*: the smallest ones, from five hundred to one thousand desaiteens. The only tax paid by the proprietor, is that upon income, at the rate of six per cent. The government of this peninsula, though in most of its forms similar to that of the other provinces of Russia, has yet some peculiarities attaching to it, which make it more independent, and consequently as a residence for a stranger, preferable to many parts of Russia.

It is not absolutely necessary to be naturalized, or become a Russian subject, to be an inhabitant here; except for the merchants, who are required to enrol themselves in one of three classes, according to their means or their wishes. In the first of these, they are expected or supposed to possess property in the town to which they belong, to the amount of 20,000 rubles;

* The Russian desaiteen is 2¾ English acres.

—the second class, to the amount of 10,000;—and the burghers, or lower class, 5000 rubles: of course I refer to the towns of the Crimea. In Russia Proper, the capital necessary to become a merchant of any of the guilds, is considerably greater. This however is evaded, and not so much for the casual expence to which it subjects them, as on account of the fetters it brings with it; since a person thus naturalized, cannot leave the empire without giving acceptable bond for his return thither.

There are, however, many advantages which the government have the power of giving to those who come under their protection, and he who consults his interest rather than his inclination, will do well to accept it. The first two classes of merchants are exempt from furnishing recruits; but the burghers find them; and the price of a recruit, rises in proportion to the number demanded by government from every hundred male souls; varying from 1200 to 2000 rubles. In the late war, five recruits from one hundred males, were levied annually. This fell with great severity on the large as well as

the small landed proprietors, and the value of a recruit rose in many places much higher than what I have stated here, notwithstanding the senate had fixed the price of 1260 rubles for one.

The Russian merchants may be considered as forming an intermediate class between the nobles and the peasantry. Those of the first guild or class, are said to rank as Majors in the Civil Service; while the lowest class includes all the petty shopkeepers of every description, who equally denominate themselves *kopetts*, or merchants.

The town of Kaffa has a *Nachalnek*, or Chief, of its own, who is commonly, though improperly, designated Governor. His jurisdiction extends to the town alone. The late Chief, M. Engell, a man highly calculated for this appointment, reformed many abuses which had crept into the quarantine and customs, and exercised a watchful care in behalf of the government, which was felt by many who had before acknowledged, in the words of an officer, the Director-General of the Quarantine, "*Il faut voler, Monsieur!*"

The produce of the customs in the year 1818, was 250,000 rubles; but in the administration of this governor, it increased to 700,000 rubles. Such was the difference between honesty and corruption!

M. Engell, after his first year's administration, went to St. Petersburgh to give an account of it; and previous to his departure he declared in public, that if he could not persuade the government to give their consent to the execution of some plans he had formed for the advantage of the town, he should never return to it. He did not succeed; and another was appointed to the office, which he had once avowed it was the extent of his wishes to fill honourably, and for which he had declined the offer of a more lucrative or honourable post.

This gentleman also endeavoured to effect an alteration in the terms of tenure, which, if it prove successful, will greatly enhance the value of estates, and be a spur to the sluggish spirits of the tenantry. Upon his own estate, he had demanded from the Tatars fifty kopeeks per head, per annum, for every ewe sheep and lamb,

and two rubles per head for each working ox, or cow and calf; smaller cattle to pay from fifty kopeeks to one ruble, according to their age. I left the Crimea before the effect of this arrangement could be known; but I have since heard, that the Tatars considered it as novel as it was oppressive, and many families left the property in consequence.

To the town of Kaffa belongs twenty thousand desaiteens of land; originally ten thousand only were granted, which have been, by the interest and solicitations of different governors, increased to the present quantity. This, however, produces only a revenue of two thousand five hundred rubles, it being a thin gravelly soil, and growing generally very meagre crops of corn; but it also grazes several thousand sheep in the spring and early part of the summer. The revenue of this town-land belongs to the magistracy, and is spent in town charges of various descriptions.

Kaffa, so called by the Tatars and Latins, and by the Russians and Greeks, Theodosia, on the supposition of its being the site of the ancient Greek town of that name, was in its pros-

perity under the Genoese, often designated Krim Stamboul, or Constantinople of the Crimea, and by the Tatars has since been, and is even now, very frequently called Kutchuk Stamboul, or Little Constantinople. This place, it is said, once contained within its walls 36,000 houses, and, including its suburbs, not less than 44,000. In the year 1780, we are told it had only 100 houses, and in 1800 it is stated by Dr. Clarke to have had a population of only fifty families. (This I cannot conceive to have been correct). Since then, the dreadful havoc of the plague of 1812 has depopulated its houses, destroyed the property of every individual, and for a time seemed to have annihilated both the means and the spirit for commerce. At this period it lost 3000 persons.

But the alteration which a few years can produce, is seldom more strongly evinced than on the shores of the Black Sea: scarcely a sea-port around its confines that is not capable of bringing incontestible proof of this; and chief of all of them is Odessa in its present state! That, with the return of quiet and confidence, the

revival of commerce should take place, was reasonably to be expected, particularly as the ports of the Crimea afforded such facility to the navigator, and especially the port of Kaffa. That its traffic is reviving, and its population rapidly increasing, is unquestionable. In the year 1820, no less than fifty houses were built at Kaffa, and the incorrectness of my former statement in the population of this place, was in under-rating its numbers, since it contained in that year (1820) five thousand inhabitants, without including the garrison, which consists of from twelve to fifteen hundred men.

Perhaps I have equally under-rated the population of Akmetchet, which I doubt not, according to the latest revision, must also have increased materially in number. Kaffa has a free school endowed by the Emperor Alexander, where five different languages are taught: Russian, Turkish or Tatar, Greek, and I believe, Italian and French. The Sclavonian language is also taught, but its study is confined to those intended for the church. Here is also a small museum, established by M. Broneffskey,

when he was Nachalneck of the town; but it contains nothing of note, and is said to have been pillaged.

The churches of the Crimea are poor, and bear no comparison with those which in all the principal towns of the Continent mark the love of splendour and pomp, in both the Greek and Latin churches. Here perhaps I ought to except the new and magnificent church recently erected at Sympheropol, though, for want of money to finish it, it is suspended in its execution, and remains uncompleted.

The trade of the town of Kaffa consists chiefly in the export of wheat; beside which barley, salt, and a few manufactures in iron and woollen. The imports are somewhat more numerous: Greek wines, dried fruits, Turkish stuffs, silks, and other manufactures, raw cotton, and a few copper utensils (smuggled).

Some Italian and French products find admission; but the chief articles sold in their shops are of Russian manufacture, and brought from the interior, or else Turkish, either from Constantinople or Trebizond. Kaffa is inferior to the

other towns of the Crimea, in point of local situation for communicating with the interior of Russia and Poland; and the peninsula being inhabited by the non-consuming and non-productive race of Tatars, its materials for foreign markets are very insignificant. Even in the great article of wheat, for the growth of which it is so peculiarly well adapted, both from its soil and local situation, it adds but a mere trifle to that immense quantity which is sometimes shipped from Kaffa and Kosloff; almost every grain of which is brought into the Crimea to be exported from those two towns.

Three hundred years before the Christian Æra the trade of Theodosia, in wheat, for Athens and other ports of the Mediterranean, was far greater than it is now: probably in a twenty-fold ratio greater; and all of it grew in the peninsula: but it was then inahbited by a race of men very different from the poor and sluggish Tatars.

There were no Consuls resident at Kaffa, at the time I left, but the appointment of an English Vice-Consul there had long been spoken of, and has probably taken place.

CHAP. IV.

Of the Nogay Tatars—Their chief Settlement, particular Habits, &c.—Greek Colonists—Present Greek Settlers in the Krim—Character, Occupation, Dress, and Manners of the Women—Marriages.

I NOW proceed to give some account separately of the other colonists. After the great and little Russians, the Nogay Tatars, Greek, and German colonists may be next classed; but in point of numbers, it is doubtful which should have the preference: they may be reckoned at from twenty-five to thirty-five thousand inhabitants in each colony.

The Nogay Tatars, if not the original inhabitants of the country, at least wandered over the immense Stepps of New Russia, with their tents, flocks, and herds, at the time of the Russian Conquest, and for ages before: this remnant of the Nomades of Nogay Tatary, are now collected together in a number of villages, of a

somewhat similar description, (though much meaner and dirtier buildings) to those of the Krim Tatars. They inhabit that part of the Taurida, which now goes by the name of Moloshnia Voda. The government have at length conquered the inveterate prejudices of this wandering horde, and induced them to lay aside their roving habits, settling them in villages, and inciting them to cultivate the ground. They are, however, of all the colonists, far the worst cultivators; and are still much addicted to grazing large flocks and herds, and numerous studs of mares. Under the encouragement of government, agriculture has, nevertheless, much increased amongst them; arising in a great degree from the high price of wheat; and large quantities of this grain are now annually transported from the interior to the sea-side by these people.

The moral character of the Nogays is of the worst description, and there is hardly any kind of mischief which they will not perpetrate. In horse-stealing they have no rivals, the Cossacks, in this respect, being much their inferiors. It is a trade which they practise with great success,

and much profit. The plan they follow is, to steal horses from the neighbourhood in which they live, and take them to the Crimea to sell: here they steal others, which they dispose of in their own neighbourhood; and although this traffic is notorious, and has been carried on to a great extent for many years, it is remarkable how they manage to evade or satisfy the officers of government, the more especially, as there is a ferry at Tonki which must be crossed in passing and repassing, in and out of the Crimea, which subjects every body to examination, and where all passports are registered. A French nobleman is at present Director-General of the whole establishment of Nogays, and resides amongst them*.

The Greek colonists are seated on the western side of the sea of Asoph, and occupy the district of Mariopol, of which the town of that name is the capital. They are divided into twenty-four large and flourishing villages. In the year 1778

* For a further account of them, see Mr. Whittington's Memoir, in Walpole's Travels in the East.

ANATOLIAN GREEK.
of the
CRIMEA.

they petitioned to become Russian subjects, which was granted by a manifesto of Catherine in 1779. They are therefore subject to the same laws and regulations as the Russians, finding recruits, paying capitation tax, and other taxes, and personal service when demanded, and belong to the Russian tribunals in the same manner as the Russian colonist. Soon after the cession of the Crimea to Russia, the Greeks were compelled to quit the peninsula, that they might not give assistance to the Turks and Tatars, in their endeavours to repossess themselves of this country. Whether or no this was the true motive, the effect was that of driving them into the interior, and their landed property thus reverted to government. The Greeks who now reside in the Crimea, are for the most part new settlers from Anatolia, who came for the purpose of accumulating a certain sum, with which they intend to return to their "native land," for which even Turkish domination had not obliterated the love. The late events must, however, have wrought a change in this respect, and many who were anticipating the period of

revisiting Anatolia, will rejoice at their present security from the storm which has spread so much devastation around.

The character of the Greeks is exceedingly litigious; they are jealous of each other's prosperity, and anxiously engage in the pursuit of gain. They live in the most parsimonious manner, and I have seen them, though employed in day labour, subsisting on onions, or garlic and bread. They are rigid observers of the fasts of their own church, and as attentive rejoicers upon each festival; often making those as great holidays, which the Russian calendar marks as slight ones, and of which the Russian priests less peremptorily exact the observance. Though thus religiously attentive to their fasts and feasts, they do not, however, seem to consider the necessity of public worship so great, nor do they provide for it as the Tatars do, who have no village without a *metchet* (mosque) or place used for public worship. This, though in many cases its exterior is no better than a cottage, nor has it other decoration to boast of within, than clean walls and a matted floor; yet as a

place for religious ceremony, it is never entered without respect and solemnity.

How is it that these people rank so much higher in attention to their profession than many Christians, who wholly neglect the express injunction of the Apostles for assembling themselves together; and seem to consider, when distributed in small communities, that they are exempted from the duty of public worship?

The village Greeks content themselves with an occasional appearance at the church of the nearest town; where, however, upon special occasions, such as the great festival of Easter, whole villages may be found. In the large towns there are Greek as well as Russian churches, but to this, Staria Crim is an exception.

The occupations of the Greeks are perhaps more various than those of most of the settlers. In the towns they are found as respectable merchants, as small shopkeepers, keepers of the khans, &c. The Greeks also are the only fishers who adventure far for the purpose of fishing; but notwithstanding the quantity and variety of

fish which may be caught with little trouble in the Black Sea, the markets are very ill supplied. Salt-fish is furnished from Kertch alone, though each town on the coast affords abundance for its own consumption. Fresh fish is bought up instantly it comes into market, and double or treble the quantity that usually contents the fisherman, might readily be sold. At Kertch more attention is paid to this employment, as the fisheries form a productive part of the revenue of estates, and it becomes the interest of the proprietor to render that as profitable as possible. The sturgeon is here caught and cured; and the mullet is frequently in the markets of Kaffa. Besides these, are mackarel of a smaller species than the English; several sorts of flat fish, soles, turbots of two sorts, and oysters in plenty.

In the villages they enter partially into agricultural pursuits, cultivating as much ground as will give the produce necessary for their own private consumption; but they are bad farmers, and not much skilled in the management of cattle: they, however, accumulate herds

of cows and oxen, and live much upon the produce of the former: eat the milk sour as the Tatars do, and make a much better sort of cheese. Few of them keep sheep, and such as do, entrust the management of them to Tatars, or Bulgarians; but the losses in small flocks make them very unprofitable.

The chief attention of the Greek villagers is given to the planting and raising tobacco and cabbages; and such situations as are eligible for these purposes have been chosen for their villages. I have already spoken of the cultivation of cabbages: the tobacco is a tender plant, and also depends much upon the care bestowed to weed and irrigate it. The pulling it affords a busy season to all the inhabitants of the cottage; and when housed, it is strung, or tied singly, by the stalk of the leaf, on long threads, and hung up under sheds, exposed to the air and sun, but kept from rain, until it be thoroughly dried: it is then packed in an inner apartment, ready for sale. It bears price according to the season, from one ruble and twenty kopeeks to two rubles; but

averaging one ruble and a half, or fifteen pence per oka.

Amongst the Greeks are commonly found artisans of different sorts, but especially masons and carpenters; and those who do not occupy themselves in the gardens, or at seasons when their work there is not required, always find employment in the towns as builders, &c. It is a common thing to see the Greek men engaged in making worsted, or knitting stockings: an effeminate occupation this, and a strong contrast to the noble games which once excited their ardour and engaged their pursuit. The women are extremely dirty in their houses and in their persons: in two villages near us, I never found any of the Greek cottages that induced me, either by its own appearance or that of its mistress, to be a frequent visitor, while I was often a daily attendant at one or other of the Tatar cottages. The little they have of furniture is in the Tatar style; but the black aspect of their smoked walls seems to accord with every thing around them; and the mother, with uncombed locks and unwashed hands, cannot rank

amongst her possessions, or those of her husband, the comfort of a clean hearth, or the charms of order and neatness. His dirty children may, perhaps, welcome his return home as warmly as others, and he possibly finds no misery in that to which habit has reconciled him.

The women wear the Turkish habit, even to the veil; they are dark in complexion, with intelligent dark eyes; they stain their hair and eye-brows black, and the hair is braided, and hangs down the back as a Tatar woman's. The Greek merchants, however, and their wives and families, dress in the European style; while the men among the peasantry retain the ancient Greek costume, and are immediately distinguishable by their dress. The turban worn by the men is very becoming, and they pride themselves upon having it handsome, nay even costly; and a Turkish shawl is often the ornament of the head, when the rest of the dress is by no means correspondent. A shawl is likewise worn by some around the waist; and the well-dressed Greek becomes his attire, for they are fine

handsome men, and though not generally above middle stature, are more than usually strong and powerful, and are remarkable for being able to lift and carry great weights. I have seen the Greek boys mount a ladder, with a quantity of stones on their backs, which our porters would think no inconsiderable burden.

The Greek children are early betrothed, and the marriage formed upon motives of policy by the parents, which the children, I believe, seldom refuse to ratify, since they marry at too early an age to have an opinion on the subject, or, at least, to be likely to feel influenced by any considerate motives themselves; it is therefore so far well that the discretionary power is in the hands of those who are likely to exercise it with more judgment; and as to the feelings which a refined sensibility produces here, they are not expected to be found. At the time a Greek girl is affianced, the father of the intended bridegroom makes presents to his daughter-in-law, or to her father, in proportion to his circumstances; and he is bound to aid, according to his means, in providing for the young couple. At fourteen,

and I have heard sometimes even at twelve, the girls are married; and at sixteen or seventeen the boy takes upon him man's estate, and becomes master of a family.

The Greek weddings in the Crimea are a mixed ceremony, partaking of their own gayer forms, and also of the Tatar ceremonials. The bride, deeply veiled, is conducted to her new abode, with as many carriages and attendants as they have the power of mustering: yet she is allowed to join the dance with the gay companions the marriage-feast has called together. The day after the wedding, she is destined to the form of standing in one corner of the room, not appearing as an English bride, the object of affection, and the centre to which all the kind wishes of her friends are attracted, but rather, that of rude curiosity, and more like the school-girl, who, having transgressed, is set as the mark of derision and observation, for the advantage of her companions. I know not if the bride be enjoined so long a silence as that of eight days, which is spoken of by Dr. Hunt, in his brief account of a Greek wedding,

but certain it is, that she is destined to stand a silent statue, as long as the people chuse to come to stare at her: when I have been present, I was always glad to get leave for the dance to begin (the *romaika),* which was much the best part of the ceremony.

I had no opportunity of seeing a Greek wedding in Kaffa, but I have no doubt they are conducted on more civilized principles in the towns. Pallas has given a description of this kind; though for the most part their native customs are probably broken in upon by the different usages of the nations amongst whom they are residing.

CHAP. XIV.

Further Particulars of the Crimean Greeks—Language—Greek Family at Sudac—Silk Worms—Of the German Colonists—The peculiar Advantages they have enjoyed—The Result—The Occupation—The Character of these People—The Mennonists, or Moravians—German Cottages—Visit of their Priests.

I HAD many strong reasons to remark the powerful effect of prejudice over the mind; and the slow degrees by which light dawns upon the uninformed, who ever appear to love darkness rather than light. In particular, the forcible objection which exists, not to vaccination only, but to inoculation also. In a small village of ten or twelve houses, in the summer of one year, out of the number who had the small-pox, four persons had it so violently, that none were expected to recover; two of them were a young man and his wife, who had only been married a few months: she and another died of the dis-

order, and the two who recovered were both fine young men, but were so shockingly marked, that they could not bear for a long time after to see the change thus wrought in their appearance. The following year, when I had my youngest child vaccinated, I endeavoured, through the medium of the most intelligent amongst them, to have their children vaccinated also. The fathers assented, but the prejudices of the mothers could not be overcome, and the consequence was, the loss of one of the steward's children soon after, by this virulent disorder. The reason assigned, was of course founded upon their belief in predestination—"That which God ordains," they say, "will happen." Thus in a very mistaken kind of resignation to divine power, they tempt the fate which threatens them, instead of using such means as, under the blessing of God, might be expected to avert impending calamity.

Notwithstanding what has been said, the Greeks have a more awakened curiosity than the Tatars; they *can* be made to understand the possible existence of things which they have not

seen, and they listen with interest, to the comparative accounts of the productions or the customs of other countries.

The Greeks speak the Turkish and Tatar language as fluently as their own; many of them the Russian language also. Indeed the acquisition of languages, though forming indispensibly a part, and a principal part, of a foreign education, is by no means a proof of education, since they are acquired without study, in the continual intermixture of the people of so many nations; and we have had servants who were able to speak five languages. The women speak the Greek only, which varies considerably from that classical language, as taught in our schools. The Greek women of the Crimea are not merely retiring, but repellant in their manners: I speak of the peasantry, not those of the towns, who, with the European costume, have put on the manners of civilization.

At our visit to Sudac, in the route of the south coast, we were received and most pleasantly lodged at the house of a worthy old Greek and his wife, who have often given refuge to such

as, in search of this earthly paradise, must needs pass through a purgatory, if reduced to the necessity of lodging at the dirty and miserable place, called a *tracteer,* which is kept by some Germans near the Castle. The house of our Greek friends was a perfect contrast in all respects to the cottages I have described; and rest and comfort had the additional pleasure of a cheerful reception from those who, though living privately, feel themselves gratified by the opportunity of thus mixing in society, and being serviceable to others. His cellar boasted some good wine, and his wife's stores some *liqueurs* and delicious preserves, which they pride themselves upon their skill and excellence in making.

We saw there also, the largest collection of silk-worms that I met with in the Crimea. The encouragement given by the government to rearing them, was insufficient to produce any stimulant, and the trees, once planted so profusely on this account, are the greatest part of them destroyed. The Tatars keep a small number, but all the silk is, I believe, spun at home,

and used by the Russian ladies for knitting of stockings, or by the Tatars for weaving.

The administration of the Germans is very different from the rest, having a special *Comptoir* for colonial government, which includes the Bulgarians. This Comptoir is situated in the town of Ekaterinoslaff; and there, inspectors and deputy inspectors are appointed, with small salaries, to reside in the chief town of the district in which the colony is planted, through whom all business is communicated to the principals, and who again correspond with the Minister of the Interior.

Although his Imperial Majesty has accorded more privileges, and conferred more special favours upon them, than any other of the colonists, with the exception of a few hereafter noticed, none have succeeded less. And yet the lands distributed among them, have been universally of the most fertile description; and large sums of money, in the proportion of from one to five or six hundred rubles per family, were lent to them upon their arrival, free of interest, for ten years, (and afterwards increased to

twenty years), to build their houses and buy stock, &c. &c. No recruiting amongst them for twenty years was allowed, nor any taxes for that period. Still the same system was pursued with these as in all the Russian colonies—by assembling large masses of people into villages, whose houses were contiguous to each other.

The money advanced by government to these Germans, was expressly lent on the conditions that, in the payment of it, each colonist of a village should be responsible for the total number, and the total number for each individual. It happened, however, in several of these colonies, soon after they were transplanted from their native country, that many of them died from fevers, intermittents, and the consequences of intemperance; and in the Crimea the plague added much to the havoc. The result has been, that the money lent by government, falling with such accumulated weight on the few survivors, put it utterly beyond their power to discharge the debt; to obviate which, fresh importations were added to the original stock, amongst whom the debt was divided; and some of their villages

have been more than once renewed from Germany. But, to speak in a more limited sense, all the males of a family being answerable for a debt, which all had borrowed, if any of these died, the debt was doubled or trebled for the remainder.

Liable to such disadvantages, it was not to be expected that much progress would at first be made in the colonization of these plains, fertile as they were; and the Colonial Administration, aware of the impossibility of satisfying the demands of government, permitted many of these colonists, of either sex, to quit their villages, granting them passports for six, or twelve months at a time, subject to renewal, so that they might in servitude, or as artisans, collect by degrees enough to pay the government, and redeem their liberty. By these means, many of them have set up for themselves, in the different towns of the three provinces (beyond the limits of which they are not suffered to proceed), as carpenters, shoemakers, cabinet-makers, blacksmiths, tailors, &c. &c. Any occupation suits them better than the trade of husbandry; though the despotic

principles which were once visible in these newly established colonies, enabled the titled colonial officer resident on the spot, or in the neighbouring town, to order the overseer to flog the colonist who refused to work, and thus the lazy or drunken boor, who would not plough, or sow his land as he ought, was compelled to do so. Immoral conduct in the female colonist was equally corrected by flogging.

These severe measures, however, fell on the original emigrants, who were chiefly from Swabia: these have for the greater part been succeeded by another generation, better than the first in moral character; more healthy, more active, and laborious; nor were such harsh means ever required to be applied to some of the German colonists, whose habits and character were very superior to the above-mentioned.

The Mennonists, or Moravians, who are settled in the neighbourhood of Perekop, came over with plenty of money, knowledge of business, and superior industry, and are at present a wealthy race; having built large farm-houses and offices, planted extensive orchards, and laid out great

gardens, possessing the finest breed of cows in the country, and growing a great abundance of corn. They are a most industrious and religious class of people, deservedly held in high estimation.

Those in the neighbourhood of Kaffa are chiefly Swabians, and a few Swiss emigrants. The favourite occupation of those who reside in these villages is that of gardening, which they thoroughly understand; and by them the markets of the different towns are supplied with all kinds of vegetables. Most of them keep a cart, or light German waggon, in which they convey their different garden produce to town, and also poultry, eggs, and fresh butter, which is very excellent, and much superior to any other, and sells at a higher price. They also (with the exception of a few French bakers), make the best bread sold in the towns of the Crimea, and have by far the best hops, from their method of drying them.

The cottages of the Germans are much better built than those of any other peasantry of the Crimea. They have a church in each of their

villages, at which one of the parishioners, who is best enabled to take upon him the Sacerdotal office, reads prayers twice every Sunday; and a Lutheran priest properly authorized, who resides at Sudac, visits each colony twice a year, to marry, christen, and enquire into the state of their churches. The effect of these visitations must be miraculous, were they to produce any good, beyond that which may result to the pocket of the priest for the marriages, and other church ceremonies that he performs; and the character of these people is such, that nothing short of a miracle, or long and assiduous care, can make any impression upon it. They are slow in understanding, and it is said, owe their name in Russian, *Nâmetz*, to their being thought dumb, or unable to learn the language of the people amongst whom they live: they are low, and brutal in their manners, more especially the men, who appear the least civilized inhabitants of the Crimea.

CHAP. XV.

Of the Bulgarians: their frugal, industrious Habits: their Flocks of Sheep and Goats: their Agriculture—Domestic Habits of the Women: their Dress—Houses—Hospitality—Story of the Plague—Religion—Village Regulations—Language, and Origin.

The Bulgarians, though ranking low in point of numbers amongst the other colonists of New Russia, are perhaps deserving the first notice, from the high character they bear, as a sober, industrious, and meritorious class. These people have migrated from the arbitrary subjection of the Turkish government, to the mild one of the Crimea, which, in affording a refuge from despotic tyranny, possesses a sufficiently strong inducement to the peasant, who lives there in ease and independence, such as he can scarcely find equalled in any other part of the world. Besides rather large villages which belong to this people in the neighbourhood of Staria

Crim, they have a few flourishing ones near Odessa. They are in all respects under the same regulations as the German colonists, not furnishing horses to the government, and enjoying all their exemptions.

Many of their community are more affluent than they are willing to acknowledge themselves: the policy of avoiding with extreme caution any display of wealth, which the imposition of their former masters has taught them, is, like other habits, continued even when the necessity for it no longer exists; since none but the Tatars are now regarded with any jealousy by the Russian government.

Luxury, though the offspring of wealth, needs the fostering hand of civilization to rear it, and is not found in the cottage of the hardy mountaineer, or the uncivilized inhabitant of the plain. Nursed by frugality, he is parsimonious by nature, education, and long habit; and the difference between abundance and poverty, is only discerned by a larger or smaller share of the same plain food, and plain clothing, if we except the single channel into which his

wealth flows—the increase of his flocks or herds. The Bulgarian is a careful shepherd, and understands far better than the Tatar, either that occupation, or the culture of the ground. The former, however, is a point to which the Tatar would not accede; and I think it possible his knowledge might be more conspicuous, were not his avarice and idleness so predominant. The industry of the Bulgarian makes him a provident master; and while he too is careful in the expenditure of a kopeek, he does not neglect to guard against inclement seasons, and accidental wants.

The clean and healthy appearance of their flocks, shews the attention which is bestowed upon them, and the losses amongst them are proportionably less. These flocks are all of the Crimean breed, the Spanish flocks being in the hands of large proprietors, or among French settlers.

The Bulgarian shepherd leads a roving and unsettled life, moving about wherever he finds pasturage for his sheep, and raising his temporary and lonely habitation, sometimes in the

woods, and at other times a short distance from some village of the plain. It never, I believe, happens that one man alone has charge of a flock; two, and often three or more, according to its size, are required; and the dog, ever the faithful ally of man, is the watchful guardian of his master's treasure. To a thousand sheep four men are assigned, including the chief shepherd, called *Attaman;* the wages of the men are paid in kind, never in money. Indeed most of the shepherds are more or less proprietors or sharers in the flock, and some of them, who tend their flocks the whole year, possess a thousand sheep, and even more.

The goats kept with their sheep are turned to more profit than those of the Tatar flocks, for they milk them regularly, and make a rich good cheese of the milk, which is preserved in bladders, being put in while warm; it then cuts and eats not unlike the fresh cheese of Cambridgeshire; and is thus kept throughout the year.

I ate once a sort of pudding made of this curd, which some shepherds who had their flocks in the forest of Agirmish prepared for

our party; and both cheese and cheese-cakes, in the English manner of making, are excellent from this curd. The goats' hair is sometimes, but not generally, pulled; it is to be bought in the Crimea, and is sent to Constantinople.

They keep a few horses, oxen for the plough or team, and cows, but not in large numbers. Pigs are generally or frequently found in their store-yards, some of which they kill and take to market, and others reserve for their own seasons of feasting, or at least for those not set apart for fasts. Poultry also is kept for home consumption, and is seldom to be purchased in their villages.

The men are good shots, and skilled particularly in using the rifle, (which, of Turkish manufacture, may be bought at low prices), and by their means the markets of Kaffa, and other towns, are frequently supplied with deer, and wild boars. The flesh of the latter is not comparable with that of the home-fed pig; and the former, though estimated by the Crimean, cannot be by those who have eaten venison in England.

As agriculturists, the Bulgarians hold also pre-eminence amongst their neighbours; they bestow the trouble of weeding their corn, and are more careful in the description of seed they sow; for this reason they cannot say with the Tatars, that they sow *wheat* till *rye* comes, and *vice versa*. Now the former may, I think, be literally the case, since they never change or clean their seed, and the proportionate rapidity of the increase of that which is evil, to the growth and progress of good, is, I fear, a fact easily established in more cases than that of a crop of corn.

Besides the common courses of grain which the Bulgarian cultivates, he raises flax enough for the purposes of his family, but seldom sows millet, or garden-seeds; for their villages being near the mountains, they have for the most part a considerable distance to go to plough. Such of them as live near the forests which are not exempted from the havoc and depredation of the axe, have made considerable profit from the burning of charcoal, for which they find ready sale at the nearest market; it being much used

to cook with, as well as in their khans, or coffee-houses.

Thus the industry and frugality of the Bulgarian, taking advantage of every circumstance that favours his independence, places him too much in ease, to send his children out into servitude; every village finding employment, even more than enough to occupy its inhabitants. The women are industrious and cleanly: besides the usual occupations of the household, they spin and weave their own and their husbands' clothing; and the Bulgarian wears few articles, but what are either the work of his wife, or his own. Many of their domestic utensils are also their own manufacture. During hay-time, or harvest, the women likewise assist in the field; and thus in habits of industry pass the active and cheerful lives of these people.

The men are in height of middle stature, thin, and sharp-faced, with high cheek-bones; long lanky hair hanging down almost to their shoulders, and commonly very high foreheads, or bare on the crown of the head. Their dress is of coarse baize, or woollen cloth, spun and

woven at home; their woollen girdles are similar to those worn by the Tatars, &c.; but they are also wrought at home, and dyed with madder.

The women are much more pleasing in their general appearance; a dark complexion, and sparkling dark eyes, set off a dress, singular, if not attractive: it is composed of a fine and very white woollen cloth, edged at the bottom and around with a border of red, about two inches deep. The petticoat, which is of the same material, and also red, is seen below the gown, to the full depth of the border; a broad girdle, or sash, with long ends tied behind, and commonly embroidered with silk or gold thread; and on the head a handkerchief, or veil of white muslin, with a border around, to match the rest of the dress: this is thrown carelessly over the head, and falls down the back, and, divested of the extreme formality of the Tatar veil, is much more graceful.

Formerly, the front of the dress was ornamented with pieces of gold or silver coin, and in many cases the whole of the front of the body entirely covered with them; but as

they found that this display was often viewed with an evil eye by the Turkish Aga, or Chief, who chanced to observe them, and that without necromantic skill he commonly contrived to convert the gold of others to his own immediate use, they learnt to doff their golden trimmings, and are now content to *tell* that they *have* worn them.

At their holiday festivals they dance in groups, forming each party into a circle, and dancing with much spirit, somewhat in the style of the Anatolian romaika, to the bagpipes, the drum, and sometimes the balalaika, or three-stringed fiddle.

The houses of the Bulgarians are remarkable for cleanliness and order, though objectionable from their extreme darkness; a very small window, and a large open chimney, admit all the light they have; yet, like the mole, they seem to have as much as they require.

They are simple and open in their manners, and hospitable to the stranger, giving of the best they possess, and cutting their coarse loaf with an expression of welcome, that makes one for-

get its colour in the good humour which presents it. Dried fish and cheese are always amongst their stores; and the traveller who has passed "the desert mountain-track of Leon," or the dreary Stepps of Russia, will not reject the clean, though coarse provisions, which the hospitality of the Bulgarian peasant sets before him.

It is recorded, and believed by all denominations of the superstitious inhabitants of the Crimea, that this quality (hospitality) was the means of preserving a whole village from the dreadful visitation of the plague during the years 1812 and 1813. The belief of the *personification* of *evil*, is rarely found, though we read of it in all the Eastern tales. The story is as follows: Near midnight a stranger knocked, and obtained admittance, at the cottage of one of these villagers; he begged for food and drink, both of which were freely given to him, and his stay for the remainder of the night pressed; but having refreshed himself, he got up to depart, and thanking them for their reception of him, assured them he would amply repay it. "I am," said

he, "THE PLAGUE, and during the scourge with which I am come to visit this country, your village shall remain unhurt and untouched amidst surrounding devastation." The promise was fulfilled, and the village escaped the infection, which spread with horrid rapidity around.

The fact of their escaping the plague is well known, but it would not be difficult to account for this circumstance by much more reasonable means. The tale alone serves to shew the extent of credulity, and that superstition alike exerts her powerful influence over the ignorant of every nation. Could the skull of a horse or ox, with which the Bulgarian guards his cattle-yards from the malice of witches, or the evil eye, defend him from the much more to be dreaded witchcraft of superstition, it would indeed be a friend to him. But until education dispels the native darkness of the mind, we cannot hope to see this universal power of superstition subdued, any more than we can expect the light and genial warmth of the sun, before he has risen in our horizon.

The religion of the Bulgarian is that of the Russian or Greek church, and they observe the holidays with more strictness than the Sabbath; the breach of one of these being punished by setting the offender in the stocks. Each village has its public concerns regulated by the elders of it; and one man serves an appointed time the office of constable.

Their language and origin is Slavonian*, but the intercourse with the Russians has made it now a mixture of that and modern Russian.

* The Bolgarians are Slavonians, who obtained their name from their capital, Borgard, situated thirty versts below the Kama, and five from the Volga. It was destroyed in 1500 by the Russians.—*Tooke's History of the Russians.*

CHAP. XVI.

Armenians—Character—Dress, and Manners—Jews—Superiority of the Karaite Jews: They claim Exemption from consenting to the Death of the Saviour—Jewish Women—Curious Jewish Custom—Of the Natives of other Nations resident in the Crimea—Of the Poles—Importance of Rank in Russia—Observance of the Russian Fast—of Prayer.

The Armenians now settled in the Crimea are comparatively few in number. The settlement of these colonists at Nachtchivan has been fully described by Dr. Clarke, who states the number of them there to be eight thousand. Those of the Crimea are universally resident in the towns, either as merchants or burghers; and the application so contemptuously bestowed by Buonaparte on the English, seems, in truth, perfectly applicable to these people—they are really a nation of shopkeepers, having no other pursuits than those of buying and selling, in which they

shew a keenness that makes them much more apt to over-reach others, than liable to be deceived themselves.

In character they are more retired than many others of the settlers, and particularly the women, who are reserved and awkward amongst strangers: they have quick piercing dark eyes, very dark hair, handsome noses, most intelligent countenances, shewing a natural capacity, which, from the want of education, is all absorbed in one acquirement, and devoted to the knowledge of increasing gain; and in the comprehending pecuniary interest, they are remarkably shrewd.

The dress of the Armenian has little of peculiarity: a very high cap of fur, or lamb's wool, a loose frock coat, and a caftan, or shube, of lamb's wool or fur; or in warm weather, of cloth. The women, in addition to the Eastern dress, wear a long and wide cloak of black silk, or satin, and a veil the same as the Tatars.

The Armenian prides himself as much upon performing a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, as the Tatar or Turk upon that to Mecca, and assumes also the rank of Hadgee, having his arm tattooed

with the sign of the Cross, the Holy Sepulchre, &c. &c. An Armenian merchant of Kaffa introduced his son to us, a rough awkward boy of thirteen years old, telling us with much exultation, that he was Hadgee, and shewing the indisputable marks of his being entitled to that rank.

I could not help feeling of how little true value is rank, which all so much prize, unless it be dignified by a character which exalts and ennobles it. The father of this lad, a drunken and disgusting man, could not possibly feel any interest in having visited the place where the Saviour of mankind had suffered: his was the pride of heart which least befits the man who bears upon his arm the badge of having been at the holy city.

The Armenians manufacture for sale a coarse felt, called wylocks, which is used for many purposes, and possessed by all the peasantry.

Their chief amusement is playing at chess, and a game called by the Russians tric-track, which is a superior game of backgammon: they

sit on the shop-board in front of their shops, and often play throughout the day, except when interrupted by the occasional visit of a customer.

The most respectable of the Armenians are Roman Catholics, the rest Arians.

The Jews are very numerous indeed in all the colonies, composing from one-fifth to one-tenth of the whole population. But they are, with very few exceptions, fixed in the class of burghers and shopkeepers, in every one of the towns of New Russia. Latterly the government tried the novel experiment of colonizing them as husbandmen, and some establishments were formed in the government of Ekaterinoslaff.

The Karaites, of whom Mrs. Guthrie speaks, still retain undisturbed possession of the fortress of Tchoufout Kä-le. Several of them, and particularly those of Kosloff, are designated Million Tcheks, from their possessing a million or more of rubles. The Karaites are commonly the most wealthy, and are on all accounts the most respectable. They hold themselves very distinct from their Polish brethren, and neither of the

sects will eat meat with a stranger, or such as has been killed by strange hands. Would that they were found in their dealings with others, as strictly observant of the law in its moral sense, as in its outward rites. But still they continue "extortioners, unjust," yet expect that the observance of sacred ceremonials of fasts and feasts, shall be an acceptable offering to Him who has declared to them His abhorrence of them. They must be wilfully blind, who believe, like the fellow at Dünabourg, that his sanctified hypocrisy could avail him, when he took the money in a napkin, which he would not prophane his *fingers* by the *touch* of, on the Sabbath Day!

The Karaite Jews, though they receive not Jesus Christ as the promised Messiah, yet aver that they were no way concerned in, or consenting to his death. But though they thus reject the dreadful responsibility entailed on them by the declaration of their forefathers—"His blood be on us, and on our children," yet, like many others of mankind, they ground their opinions in matters of religion, less upon their own reason

and conviction, than on the faith and practice of their ancestors.—"Why should I," said one of these people in conversation, "Why should I suppose my father was mistaken upon a subject which it concerned him as much as myself to be informed upon?"

"Supposing him not to have been mistaken, that is no sufficient cause for your not consulting your own reason in a matter of such great importance: if it was a speculation in which your worldly possessions were hazarded, probably you would think it right to judge for yourself, and should you differ in opinion, would even venture in conduct to oppose him also. How much more essential then, when the interests of time and eternity are equally implicated in the question?" He shrugged his shoulders with a tacit assent to a truth, that was yet above his reach.

The Jewish women are generally handsome, though disfigured by their extremely disagreeable costume, which abroad they universally wear, though in England the most part have laid it aside. They are, I believe, the only

women in the Crimean towns, who are enough skilled in needle-work to do it for hire; and many of the Jews are tailors.

A curious Jewish custom was related to me by a Polish gentleman. The Jews, when first married, wear a shirt of finer texture than ordinary, which, after the wedding-day, is carefully put by unworn till the time of their deaths, when they are uniformly buried in it. So valuable is this shirt in their estimation, and so indispensible a part of their possessions, that in money transactions, when they require to borrow, and have no pledge in gold or pearls to give, they frequently deposit this shirt, which is always a satisfactory security to the lender, as the Jew could not die happy without redeeming it.

Of the other nations who constitute a part of this mingled multitude, none are settled as colonists in large bodies, but are such as the different offices of government, or some accidental incitement, has brought thither; those of the peasantry have been either attached to the army, in the service of some family, or, (and it

is said not a few), escaped from the rigour of offended laws.

Heterogeneous as this mass appears, they yet form a whole in which each, as a member, bears a distinct part; and though daily mixing in commercial pursuits, and all following one grand object, the never-failing desire of gain, yet the characteristic traits of each nation are preserved; and the assimilation between them is no more than is needful to effect this predominant purpose.

The Poles in the Crimea are few in number, tall, and finely formed: even the servants are superior in their manners to any other of the peasantry, and many of them found in such situations, still relate with a proud consciousness, and a spirit that scarce brooks controul, that they rank as nobles. Amongst our particular acquaintance too, was a Hungarian, a worthy excellent man, who, though living in a small cottage, which had nothing to recommend it except the beauty of its situation and its internal neatness, could yet shew the credentials of his nobility, and feel an inward superiority, of which the power of

fortune had not been able to deprive him. His two sons were both in the army, the only line of advancement to honour in the Russian government. The youngest having been wounded, was permitted to retire, and a civil appointment given to him. In this manner his Imperial Majesty, with great policy, reserves as rewards and encouragements for his soldiers, the civil offices and most honourable distinctions of his state. In their schools, rank is alone given to the military cadet, which he receives immediately on entering the school, if designed for the army or the navy.

To be a citizen of Russia, rank is indispensibly necessary; and the peasant will refuse to obey the orders of him who cannot call himself by some more distinguishing title than that of genman; and he who, unmarked by rank, can find admission even at our court, cannot fail to be struck by the difference of system in the country of which I am now speaking, where a man bearing a rank, however high, will not presume to sit before his superior officer, until bidden perhaps more than once to take his place.

The Russian fasts are kept with rigid sanctimony by the peasantry; those who are in servitude, and living in the houses of such as eat meat, always prepare their own food, and refuse to partake of that cooked in a saucepan where meat has been: they use the greatest care to avoid intermixing their eatables or utensils with such as are unholy. The Russian proprietors of estates (who are resident in the Crimea) for the most part find it more convenient in all respects, and accordant with their circumstances, to keep the fast; but the more wealthy observe it variously—some keeping the first and last week, and others disregarding it altogether; and perhaps it may be considered one proof that the present age is becoming more enlightened, since the younger part of families are beginning to look with a very doubtful eye at the efficacy of that self-denial which aboundeth unto evil, rather than to good.

A Russian priest called upon us, with some other friends, during Lent, and I felt sorry that we had nothing to set before him that I thought he would eat, except some pickled fish: he how-

ever soon relieved me from this regret, and while partaking of that which the rest of the party were eating, he said, "we understand as well as you the nature of fasting; not that which goeth into the mouth defileth the man—is it not so?—but yet it is not necessary that *all* should see so clearly." His own *clearness of sight*, I was told, was more frequently impeded by drinking than eating; however, those who are less liberal than he, never think of abstinence from drink, or any other intemperate desire; and that self-denial which can abstain for five or six weeks from animal food, is expected to make amends for the breach of all the remaining catalogue of sins. "Thank God," said the murderer of the Jew's family at the Karagoss tracteer, devoutly crossing himself as he spake —thank God, I never broke the fast!"

A Russian thinks it not needful to enter his closet, to offer up his morning or his evening orisons to the great Being he worships; but does it through the intervention of some saint, whose picture hangs suspended in a corner of his sitting-room, to which he bows, and crossing

himself, prays in a low or inaudible voice, regardless by how many he is surrounded. This, as a public acknowledgment of his faith, however it may be deemed meritorious, has decidedly its disadvantages; and I have frequently remarked, two *at least* of his senses not occupied by the ceremony he was performing, namely, those of sight and feeling; the former wandering to other objects, and the latter excited by *that little animal*, which seems to share with the lord of the soil the possession of a Russian peasant. In the solemnity of public worship, in which all as one family join in adoration and prayer, or in that of private devotion, our hearts are too often cold and wandering: shall we not then find fresh obstacles in praying publicly, when those around us are not engaged in the same duty? The Russian never passes a church, or rather the image of the saint to whom the church is consecrated, without crossing himself; yet the inefficacy of this *outward* bearing of *the cross* is abundantly testified in all his works.

CHAP. XVII.

Accommodation of the Crimean Towns to a Traveller—Of the Posts of the Crimea—Rapidity of Travelling in Russia—Quartering of Troops—Troops furnished by the Tatars—Yie Yie Murza—Felt-yagers—Cursory Remarks.

The chief towns of the Crimea can boast accommodation for the traveller much superior to that generally found in the interior of Russia; since there are tracteers, or inns, kept by individuals of almost every nation that resort thither. It is true, it may be difficult to feast in a Russian town, during a fast of their church; the traveller who goes to a Russian inn, cannot hope for any thing better than sour soup, and hemp oil; at a Greek or Bulgarian khan, he may have as much wine or brandy as he chooses, and perhaps obtain bread, and olives, or caviarre; the same may be said of the Armenian khans; at the French and Italian, or at the

German inns, he may hope to fare better: at all events, they will not refuse, like the Jewish hostess, to boil the water for his tea, or cook such provision as the town affords; much less will they deny him the use of plates, knives and forks, with which the Jewess will rarely supply him, lest prohibited food pass the lips of her guest, and then no water can wash that clean, which, by the law of Moses, has been thus defiled.

These remarks, however, might mislead the expectation of the traveller on the south coast, for I speak of the interior towns only; and he who seeks to indulge his natural or classical taste by wandering through its beautiful scenery, will find in the cottage of the mountain Tatar, his best accommodation, and such simple fare as they can give, freely afforded him. Their cordiality, however, may be much heightened, if they find he is not a *Cossack* (their term for Russians in general), who for the most part being subaltern officers of the government, visit them on occasions, in themselves not gratifying, and are considered their worst paymasters.

This leads me to speak of the posts. Reuilly says, "under the Khans, the posts of Tatary were free, as those princes defrayed all the expences occasioned by them. Since the domination of the Russians, they have been placed upon the same footing as all the other posts of the empire, and the Tatars are obliged to support them at their own expence." Upon this subject he is very incorrect. The traveller on the south coast is certainly furnished with horses and guide by the Tatars; for which a regular passport is requisite, and a regular price is paid; but the post-stations of the public roads of the Crimea, as those throughout all Russia, are rented by Russians, and a very considerable profit made upon them, partly by fair means, and partly by a species of finesse in which the many are well skilled.

I have given some previous account in my journey, of the posts of Russia; to that, the following particulars, which I have since ascertained, may be added: government allow twelve hundred rubles per troic, or, set of three horses, per annum, besides the progone, or regular

price paid by the traveller, for as many troics as the traffic upon the road make it necessary to keep at one station. For this, which certainly appears a very large sum, the renter furnishes the three horses, as aforesaid, one yemtchek, or driver, and a small four-wheeled cart, or carriage without springs, which he is bound to have always ready for the road, and for which he pays all regular, and contingent expences. He is besides liable to furnish horses, free of expence, for the Imperial family, the senate, government estafettes, felt-yagers, and the post. Yet, though this seems a most liberal allowance, many of them think it necessary to increase it, by contriving to keep fewer horses than they contract for, and often compelling travellers to bribe them to obtain horses, unless they wear the insignia of rank, or travel with a courier's passport, which having upon it, the words "*cazonie nadobnost*," or "government service," they dare not disregard.

The rapidity of travelling in Russia, is very remarkable. The Emperor has been from Moscow to Petersburgh, a distance of 483 miles, or

728½ versts, in 36 hours. Another instance may be given, from a highly respectable merchant at Odessa, of this style of travelling on the Continent: this gentleman went from Odessa to Calais in seventeen days. I have heard several other things of the same kind. The general officer who conveyed the intelligence of the fall of the fortress of Otchakoff on the Black Sea, to the Empress Catherine, accomplished the journey of 1200 miles in five days and nights. The post, however, does not travel swiftly; it is often subject to detention in the district towns, and is fourteen days passing from Kaffa to Moscow, which is at the rate of only sixty-six miles per day.

The quartering of troops is another subject on which, as I have not previously remarked, it may not be uninteresting to give a few particulars. Reuilly says, "under the Empress Catherine, the Tatars obtained an exemption from every kind of tax, and of the quartering of troops, as well as the privilege of not furnishing recruits. But they undertook to maintain two regiments of Bechley, or cavalry, amounting

to nearly 5000 men. Paul the First having abolished the regular troops, it was proposed to subject the Tatars to the same taxes as the rest of the empire, which exciting emotion, the present Emperor restored them to their privileges, and instead of the maintenance of the two regiments, ordered that they should supply the troops quartered there with wood."

The fact is, the Tatars do not *maintain*, but *furnish* two regiments; and in the war with France, they furnished four regiments, which were commanded by Prince Balatook: they were a fine body of men, 800 in each regiment, and their brave conduct was highly extolled. Prince Balatook has been lately exerting all his interest to be made Hetman of the Tatars, and for a time it excited much commotion in the government of the Crim: he, however, has not yet succeeded to his wish. Besides the furnishing the two regiments, which is their quota in the peace establishment, the supply of wood is required; and they are also subject to the quartering of troops in their marches and counter marches through the peninsula, which is some-

times their route for Georgia, when detachments are marched from Moldavia, or Bessarabia, or the western part of the empire; beside the interchange of those stationed in the peninsula.

In 1789, the number of troops in the Crimea are stated to have been thirty thousand, of which five thousand were Cossacks: the present military establishment is only ten thousand.

Of the military force in 1767, under the Khans Maksood Gueray, and his successor Krim Gueray, Baron de Tott thus writes: "The best calculation we can make is from a view of the military forces which the Cham is able to assemble. We shall soon see this prince raising three armies at the same time; one of a hundred thousand men, which he commanded in person; another of sixty thousand, commanded by the Calga; and a third of forty thousand, by the Nooradin. He had the power of raising double the number, without prejudice to the necessary labours of the state."

Although during my residence there, I once or twice heard of projected insurrections, I could

not, from what I saw, or what I heard upon *good authority*, find that any spirit of the kind existed: much too powerless are these people now, to rise up against the still increasing and giant strength of their master; and if, with the disuse of their warlike weapons, the disposition to use them be not fled, the bold spirit which distinguished them under the reigns of their Khans, seems now confined to the worst part of their community, who are ferocious and daring in evil alone. Yie Yie Murza, a Tatar nobleman living in the neighbourhood of Port Patch, (the village to which the Tatars belonged whose execution I described), was suspected upon very strong grounds, of being a sharer in the plunder of these marauders. To answer this, he was summoned to the tribunal at Akmetchet, whither it is said, he took and distributed at his first visit, twenty thousand rubles. And eventually to raise the sums necessary to save himself from personal punishment, he first sold his sheep and his stud of mares, and lastly an estate.

As I have more than once mentioned felt-yagers, it may be proper to explain what is the

particular department of these officers: they are exclusively employed upon the Civil Service, and are more peculiarly destined to that part of it which has reference to the secret execution of the orders of administration in the different provinces; such as the sudden removal of governors of provinces, or their principal agents, or other obnoxious characters suspected by government. These felt-yagers are universally selected for strength of body, personal courage, and prudence. They usually conduct their prisoner, bound hand and foot, to Siberia, or occasionally to the prisons of the metropolis. They travel with their charge with the greatest rapidity, and are not only officers of rank, but armed with the most absolute authority, to obtain all they require on the road, to expedite their passage through the country.

A few closing remarks only remain to be made. Lady Craven has been strangely mistaken, in speaking of rice growing in the Crimea; they have no land that is at all adapted for the cultivation of rice. Her description of the Russian singing is very correct; its effect is singular and pleasing; and particularly so, when, in the

stillness of the early morn, or evening, it is heard at a distance, from the peasants going to, or returning from labour, or the soldiers assembled in the guard-room.

The building spoken of by Mr. Heber, to the left of the road leading from Staria Crim to Sudac, is a priory, with a few Armenian monks resident there, and a very fine estate of three thousand desaiteens attached to it. The situation of this monastery is most romantic and beautiful, but excepting the scenery around, it has nothing worthy of remark.

Bachtcheserai is said to have contained, in 1803, thirty-one mosques, and seventy-five fountains: except Dr. Clarke, no late travellers have noticed the fine fountains which are still preserved here, though those of almost every other town have been destroyed.

Alushta has been remarked, as furnishing from its neighbourhood the best hemp in the Crimea; and at Ourzoff we saw a piece of ground which had been cultivated for upwards of a century for flax alone. As this crop is generally considered of the most exhausting nature, such a circumstance

is very remarkable, and will perhaps be considered a *lusus naturæ* in the agricultural world.

Karasubazar holds, according to the last revision, nine thousand souls, exclusive of the barracks, which are a considerable distance out of the town; these, in time of peace, do not contain above fifteen hundred men, including artillery.

Perhaps the management of bees, amongst a few intelligent people in England, is superior to all that the Tatars can boast; yet undoubtedly their superiority over all other classes in the Crimea is clear and decided; to which their fine climate, and the great profits attending the concern, contribute most essentially. The Tatars are said to possess such discriminating knowledge, that some of them, on seeing the bees at work on the flowers of the field, will directly tell to what village they belong, and some, it is affirmed, will know of what proprietor they are the property.

The wages of a bee-gardener vary according to the number of which he has the charge; but at Karagoss he received three hundred rubles from

Easter to Michaelmas, twelve bushels (English) of wheat, and some coarse linen for trowsers and shirting, besides skin shoes. The largest hive at Karagoss, from its pre-eminence in size, was called the Espravnek; exclusive of this, the largest, when full, yielded from sixty to eighty pounds weight of honey and wax; moderate sized ones, from thirty to sixty pounds; the least from ten to thirty pounds. This was the produce of good years, and when the hollowed trunks of trees (which are most commonly used for hives), were full. Many of these hives, to remove from their summer to their winter quarters, required two stout Greeks to carry them.

CHAP. XVIII.

Of Estates in the Crimea, and those in Poland, or Russia Proper—Profit resulting to the Proprietor of the Soil from his Boors, or Peasants—Comparison of the leading Characters of Crimean Settlers—Moral Character of the Peasantry, evinced in their Farewell at my Departure from Karagoss.

The estates in the Crimea have no slaves attached to them; those, however, of the other districts of South Russia, that are in the hands of private proprietors, are sold as the great Russian estates, with slaves; though I believe in all cases having a much smaller number than either those of Poland or Russia Proper, and never exceeding, or seldom attaining 500. When these estates were sold, or granted to the proprietors, they were purchased at very low rates, from five to ten kopeeks per desaiteen, with the proviso,

that one male soul, or one ox, cow, horse, mare, or two sheep per desaiteen, were put upon them, to stock the property.

Boors, or peasants, can scarcely be said to form so much a part of the property, as that they are the property itself; as when estates of this sort are sold, the boors, their families, wives, and children, and the respective ages of all, are regularly stated. Of course land, live-stock, and implements, are included; but all these are considered as objects of inferior importance, and frequently are not so much as mentioned in the "particular of an estate."

There are two ways by which the proprietor of the soil receives a profit out of his land. The one is by the hard labour of his boors, in which case the village is divided into two parts, one to work for the maintenance of the boors, their families, live stock, &c. and the other half are compelled to labour for their lord; and it is at his option either to draw out half the gang of a village, to work regularly every day from year's end to year's end, or to call out its entire population; in which case they work every other day for him, and the

alternate one for themselves; but this is seldom practised.

The second mode by which the master derives a profit from his boors, is by a capitation tax. This is far the most advantageous for the boors themselves, but the worse practice for the interests of the lord; yet it obtains almost universally among the great and wealthy proprietors.

The sameness of life in the Crimea, more especially to the proprietor resident in the country, is like the profound stillness of a lake, which is seldom interrupted, except by some passing bird, which may delight the solitary observer on its shores, but little affects its peaceful inhabitants. The rejoicing of a festival among the villagers, or the accidental visit of some officer of the government, (who, finding it convenient to have a night's lodging on a couch, rather than in his calesk on the Stepp, therefore pays an occasional visit to the proprietor), are events of the greatest magnitude, and produce as much bustle in the family where they occur, as for the time may lessen the enjoyment of those members of it,

who by long habitude are disposed to the continuance of inanity.

The Tatar, for reanimation, has recourse to his pipe; his wife to her holiday clothes, and a visit; the Russian to a drinking frolic, which once begun, may last for a week or two; there is no telling how long, or guessing how soon the fascination of the cup may cease, or reason be restored to her throne; but when she has regained her seat, he returns submissive, and with increased alacrity, to his duty, and will kiss the feet of his offended master. The German takes the same course, but not with equal success, for the electrical power has much less influence over him; he is naturally too stupid to be elicited, even by such means. The Greek, too, takes the cordial cup with almost as much zest as though it were the one which the fair Helen prepared for Telemachus; he drinks till he is merry, and then dances till he thirsts again. The Russian drinks brandy; the Greek, wine: the Russian drinks till he is senseless—he sleeps, recovers, and returns to drink again. The Greek drinks till his spirits are elated, and all around him

seems gay; he takes his balalaika, the dancers assemble around him, quick as his spirits, pass his fingers over the strings, and the dancers' feet keep time to its simple tones.

The Russian proprietor will sometimes condescend to join the carousal of his vassals and tenantry; and his wife, with her female attendants, may be seen playing at blindman's-buff, or moving about in masquerade, either in Greek or Tatar attire. The Greek merchant makes it holiday around him whenever he visits his estate, taking with him friends, to divest the country of its loneliness, and solitude of its terrors. His tenantry celebrate his arrival by bringing him presents of eggs, fruit, pastry, &c. The Tatar proprietor, accustomed to reside in the country, shuns with equal care a sojourn in the town, where his expences so much exceed his customary frugality, and his intermixture with society is so much, and unavoidably greater, than his peaceful habits are disposed to accord with. The English proprietor, in the midst of neighbours and dependants, yet feels a lonely sojourner there; his habits, totally different to

all by which he is surrounded, he joins the festive group but as an observer; his heart partakes not in the church festival, nor in that outward pomp, which ill accords with the pure and simple worship of that Spirit who requires to be worshipped in spirit and in truth: he sees with pain how much time is wasted without any laudable pursuit, or any object that can invigorate either mind or body; and he cannot fail to feel regret at observing the strictness which marks the refraining from work on the birthday of some inconsiderable saint, while that which God so mercifully has appointed as a day of universal rest, is in every sense abused. Throughout the continent of Russia, so far from the Sabbath being considered as a day peculiarly set apart for religious worship, it is one of more than usual bustle: in all the large towns the Sunday market is much the largest; and the early part of the day is therefore occupied by family arrangements, and the evening devoted to balls or the theatre. Thus the Englishman, whose character is perhaps composed of materials that do not easily assimilate with foreign

matter, finds, whatever be the number of his acquaintance, that he has few friends.

From what has been premised, it will readily be seen, that the routine of a country life amidst such a primitive race as the Tatars, though it was occasionally enlivened by visits to the towns, or neighbouring proprietors, or made interesting by the means of serving our poorer neighbours, yet could have little of anecdote, while it afforded much of observation, and abundance of employment.

The moral character of the peasantry of the Crimea is exceedingly depraved and vicious; and, excepting the Tatars, I never found it possible, by any good offices or kindness, to excite any attachment in them, that the sight of a glass of brandy would not instantly surmount; and amongst the servants we have had, from nearly every nation, there, a gross immorality and inveterate love of drunkenness, were almost invariably the leading traits.

The different modes by which they manifested their regret at the time of my leaving Karagoss, were thus evinced: my Tatar neighbours were

with me throughout the day previous to my departure, either sitting silent in my room, or assisting in the arrangement for the journey; but on the day of my departure few could see me; and when the children went to bid good bye to the women, they found them shut up, and really grieving. My two servants, one a Pole, the other a German, busily and attentively assisted me throughout the preceding day; but when their duty was done, they took care to drown their sorrow in large libations of wine and brandy, which they had previously promised me they would not do. On the morning of my departure, they felt still more strongly the necessity of repeating that, which the preceding night had produced exhilaration; and I fear, if not the ostensible, I was at least the nominal cause of a repetition of the same offence the following evening: and well was it if the evil stopped here.

I conclude with noticing, that on being seated in the carriage, and ready to depart, I was presented by the Polish woman with a small loaf of bread and some cheese, which she had sent to

the market town to purchase for me; she gave it with a particular injunction, that I should *eat it myself, and then I should not want bread upon the road.* That I did not feel this want, however, I certainly owed to a more powerful charm than her little loaf, though I received it with a ready promise to purchase my good fortune by so accommodating a price.

NOTES

RELATING TO

THE CRIM TATARS.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

HAVING resided from the beginning of the year 1816 until the month of March 1820, at the village of Karagoss, in the Crimea, I had daily opportunities of becoming acquainted with the manners of the Tatar inhabitants of that neighbourhood. Such of these as appeared to me most remarkable, I occasionally noted for the amusement of a friend in England, carefully committing to paper my observations as they successively arose.

The little collection thus made I now venture to offer to the public, nearly in the form in which it was originally composed.

Among numberless deficiencies and disqualifications of which I am conscious, I am induced to think that, as a resident and a female, I possessed advantages for acquiring information, superior to those of the passing traveller. Of these I have endeavoured to avail myself, and by confining my remarks as much as possible to subjects consistent with my own knowledge, and of which I may be considered a competent witness, I am willing to hope that I have secured to my unconnected sketches the only merit to which they pretend—the recommendation of truth.

M. H.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

CHAP. XIX.

Population of the principal Towns—Law respecting Property—Primitive Manners of the Tatars—Classes, according to the present State—Dress—Management of their Children—Tatar Wives—Their Acquirements—Occupations, and Amusements.

The male population of the Tatars* inhabiting the Crimea amounts, according to the last revision, to one hundred and eighty-six thousand souls; of these about six hundred only are Murzas (noblemen), the number of noble families being so materially reduced, that they are not supposed to exceed sixty.

The whole population of the Crimea, includ-

* I received these statements from a Tatar sacerdatal, or secretary of the Land Tribunal, and am therefore disposed to believe them correct.

ing all descriptions of people, is estimated at two hundred and sixty thousand.

Akmetchet, and Theodosia or Kaffa, contain each of them about three thousand inhabitants. Sevastopol, or Aktiar, does not surpass that amount in stationary residents; but as this port is the rendezvous of the Russian fleet in the Black Sea, its population, including sailors, soldiers, shipwrights, &c. is computed at from fourteen to fifteen thousand. According to the revision of 1820, the population of Akmetchet was estimated at upwards of six thousand, exclusive of the military stationed there. Aktiar is stated to have nine thousand inhabitants; and including all that are attached to the navy, with their families, the amount is supposed to be little short of twenty thousand.

Karasubazar is larger than any of these towns, and its inhabitants are almost entirely Tatars. It possesses the cheapest and most abundant market for provisions, and indeed for every article which is usually sold in the Crimea.

The old town of Starai Krim, once the capital of the peninsula, is now little better than a heap

of ruins*. Its few inhabitants are Armenian shopkeepers, who are said to occupy not less than two hundred shops: a number apparently equal to that of all the houses in the place. These gain a scanty subsistence from the neighbouring villages, and chiefly from those which are too distant to have frequent intercourse with the larger towns.

The trade of Kaffa is at present very inconsiderable, having two formidable rivals in Odessa and Taganrog, which are both more conveniently situated for inland communication. The Kaffa merchants, however, anticipate the time when the sea of Azoff will be no longer navigable, and the commerce now enjoyed by Taganrog be driven back into its former channel.

Besides the Tatar population, the Crimea contains large colonies of Germans, who have been greatly favoured by government, and owe it to their own idleness and drunkenness, that they

* These ruins are very extensive, and we know that at the first conquest of the country by the Russians, it was a flourishing town, though not to be compared to what it was when held by the Genoese.

are not in the most flourishing circumstances; colonies of Bulgarians, who are the best farmers and most industrious inhabitants of the peninsula; Jews in abundance, many of whom are of the Karaite sect, and are every where much respected; Armenian shopkeepers in every town; and Greeks both in the towns and villages.

Some large villages of Russian crown peasants, in addition to the Tatars, form the principal population of the Stepp; but in the towns, particularly Kaffa, may be found the descendants of more than fifteen different nations.

The law respecting property in the Crimea remains precisely, or with little variation, the same as originally established by the Russians at the time of the subjugation. Every male soul settling on an estate, is bound to give to the proprietor of it eight days' labour in the year; in return for this he has the privilege of grazing all his horses, cattle, &c. For whatsoever land he may plough, he gives one-tenth of the produce to the proprietor of the soil; and for hay, according to the abundance of the season, from one-third to one-half. Both hay and corn must

be carried home to the yard of the proprietor, who goes himself into the field to see them sent.

Notwithstanding the Tatars of the different villages in the Crimea plough, in fact, wherever they please, and as much as they like, upon payment of the aforesaid tithe, and are liable to very few out-goings (labour excepted), yet so great is their natural aversion to industry, that multitudes of them, rather than plough and sow, will buy corn to feed their families; others grow enough only for a part of the year, and exchange the rest for wool, sheep, &c.

In the simple life of the Tatars, much may be traced of similarity with those recorded in the earliest ages of Scripture history. Their riches consist now, as was usual then, in flocks and herds, and in the number of their families. Many also of their domestic habits are the same: nor is it so much a matter of wonder, that, in lives so simple, so much accordance should be found, as that any people, having had for some centuries past an intercourse with more civilized nations, should still retain those manners which characterized mankind before learning had

enlightened and commerce enriched the world. Here, the former is still unknown, and the latter scarcely ventures a step beyond the neighbourhood of the seaport whither navigation tempts her. Exchange is still the medium of purchase, and money is but seldom required or produced in bargains made between one Tatar and another, since they look with far more anxious eyes at the expenditure of a single *petack* (about a halfpenny), than at the cost of ten or twenty rubles, if negociated by the way of exchange. Poor Tatars, like Jacob, serve an apprenticeship for their wives, and are then admitted as part of the family.

The Tatars of the Crimea may be divided into three classes: the Murzas, or noblemen; the Mullas, or priests; and the peasantry; the latter paying great deference to both the former. The Mulla is considered the head of every parish, and nothing of consequence to the community is undertaken without his counsel. His land is ploughed for him, his corn sown, reaped, and carried home, and it is seldom that the proprietor of the soil takes tithe of the priest.

The language used in the mosques is the Arabic, which the clergy learn to read without being able to translate, only having a general idea as to the tendency of each prayer. The Effendis (a higher class of the priesthood) are doubtless more learned, but it is considered sufficient for a Mulla of the smaller villages to be able to read, and to understand a few of the mysteries of their religion. Not even the smallest village is without a minister; and mistaken as these poor people are in the objects of their belief, and in the observance of senseless laws, at least they are entitled to the merit of sincerity in their devotions, and a strict adherence to those duties which their religion enjoins.

The dress of a Tatar gentleman is of cloth, trimmed with gold or silver lace, or in the heat of summer, of Turkish silk, or of silk mixed with stuff, and in winter his coat is lined with fur. His trowsers are worn tight, and low at the ancles, and are made of some bright coloured linen, frequently blue. He wears upper and under slippers, and no stockings. He has generally a large high cap of broad cloth (which

distinguishes him from the peasantry), and a coloured linen shirt. The priests and old men wear their beards, but the young shave them. All shave the head; and the Mullas are known by a white linen cloth which they bind round the outside of their caps.

The dress of the women consists of a pair of trowsers tied at the ancle, and falling loose to the heel, a shift, and a quilted robe, made either of Turkish silk or cotton, or of gold or silver brocade, according to the rank and condition of the wearer. The cap worn by the girls is of red cloth trimmed round with gold fringe, or (amongst the peasantry) with their small gold money, of which they also make necklaces; these latter are likewise sometimes of silver, in form somewhat resembling a collar, being tight round the neck, with silver pendants hung close around it. Their bracelets occasionally consist of three or four silver chains affixed to a broad clasp, but are most commonly rings of coloured glass, of which they often wear two or three on each arm. Every finger is loaded with a multitude of rings of brass, lead, silver, and some

few of gold, generally with coloured stones in them. A broad belt is worn around the waist, hanging very loose, and as low as the hips: its materials vary according to the taste of the owner, but it is generally worked with gold or silver thread on black velvet, and fastened with a clasp as big as the palms of both hands; these are sometimes of gold or silver, richly embossed, and occasionally of brass or lead. A pair of silver clasps costs from one hundred and twenty to one hundred and seventy rubles.

The married women wear on their heads a large thin Turkish muslin handkerchief, the ends of which hang down behind, and over this a white veil, without which it is a shame for them to be seen. When they go out to walk they wear a large coat made of a very thin kind of woollen stuff, very white, which they spin and weave themselves; this is thrown over the head, and hangs down almost to the ancles. The few seen walking in towns are generally thus habited. The hair is plaited in innumerable small braids, which fall down the back, and usually descend below the girdle;

for the greater number of them have a profusion of very long hair. They dye it of a deep chesnut, which, if the operation be well performed, is a beautiful colour. The married women paint their faces both white and red, and pencil their eyebrows and eyelashes; but as this is done with bad materials and bad taste (the *ground-work*, moreover, being seldom pretty), they *mar* rather than *mend*, or improve their features. The privilege of painting the face is not allowed to the girls, who, however, participate in that of staining the hair and nails, both of which they dye of the same colour.

The Tatar women spin and weave all their own linen and that of their husbands, using not the wheel but the distaff. The Murzas' ladies sometimes spin the silk of the country, which (though coarse and rough), is a much more costly material, as a shift of it will cost about fifty rubles. Their linen is, for the most part, soft in its texture, and open, though not very fine. The summer dresses of the men (I mean of the peasants), are entirely of white linen or calico, in which they look very neat and clean;

but the women, generally speaking, are not so; and few, if any of them, escape the itch, which, as well as all scorbutic disorders, seems to be hereditary, and exists here with a virulence of which I had no idea, the hands, feet, and ancles being often covered with one entire sore.

They never wear stockings, but generally two pairs of shoes or slippers, the inner ones being made without stiff soles, and the upper assumed when they go out of the house. Besides these, they wear large high wooden clogs when the weather is dirty. Their slippers are very expensive when embroidered with silver thread; some which I have seen, were so finely worked as to cost twenty-five rubles the pair. Their gowns, when intended to be handsome, are lined throughout the skirt, and covered entirely over the body with some sort of fur, which reaches down the sleeves to the elbow.

The bottom of their trowsers is generally made of some fine Turkish chintz. They are very fond of shewy colours and gilding, in their dress as well as in the decorations of their apartments; but a Tatar woman, in all her

brocade, is a most ungraceful and stiff-looking figure. The peasants are very swarthy in their complexions; and though the Murza ladies are fair, being never exposed to the heat of the sun, yet personal beauty is rare amongst them.

The Tatar women suckle their children from two to three years, and think us barbarous for weaning ours so early. For the first half year they are seldom carried in the arms, but are commonly laid on their backs in a kind of cradle, in which they are bound so as not to roll out. To the top of this, immediately over their heads, are attached coloured beads, bits of glass, or money, in order to attract their notice. This, to an English mother, appears a most promising plan for making the infants cross-eyed, but it rarely happens that they are so. A Tatar child is swathed from head to foot with no other clothes than a few rags for the first two or three months, but after that it is habited in the same stiff and formal manner as the mother; and its dress, the ugliness of its features, and, more than all, the scorbutic humours which almost invariably cover it from a very short time after

its birth, make it, of all the infants I ever saw, the most disgusting and uninteresting. Rarely indeed is one seen which we may venture to take in our arms*.

A Tatar wife is *most completely* the slave of her husband, and that the men consider her such, I had from the mouth of one of the most respectable of them. Thus she is only desirable as she serves to gratify his passions, or to connect him with some Tatar of better family or greater riches than himself. Among the peasantry, however, who are less bound by rigid forms, or less observant of them than their superiors, I have often seen sincere affection displayed; but their religious tenets, as well as long established customs, teach them to suppress and subdue feeling rather than to indulge it. When a Murza visits the apartments of his women, they all rise on his entrance, and again when he leaves it, although he comes and goes very frequently. This ceremonious mark

* The Greeks in the Crimea preserve the custom of sprinkling a new-born infant with salt, alluded to by the prophet Ezekiel, c. xvi. v. 4.

of respect is never omitted, even by the wife or by any other of the females, except they be very old women, who on account of their age are excused from this form.

A Tatar woman can rarely read, and the whole of the instruction thought requisite for the girls, is that of embroidery, which is the chief and almost only occupation of those above the rank of peasantry. Spinning and weaving, which they also sometimes perform, are more generally the work of their servants. This employment, and some small share in the domestic concerns, (the more important of which devolve on the elders of the family), fill up the dull and monotonous round of a Tatar life.

In the villages of the plain, the priest is the parish schoolmaster; and it sometimes happens that his wife can also read. In this case, while the husband superintends the boys, she teaches the girls of the village, or rather the very small number of them who are desirous of learning.

The dancing of the women is very ridiculous; two only dance at a time, extending the hands, turning the head towards one shoulder, and

bending the eyes continually on the ground with affected bashfulness. The step is somewhat like the slow movements of the English horn-pipe, and the dance finishes at the option of the performers. That of the men is to quicker time, more animated, and, though not more pleasing, is perfectly the reverse of the other. The musicians are usually gipsies, and wherever they appear, they are sure to find dancers ready. The men are allowed to dance in the court-yard of the women's apartments, who look at them from their latticed gallery.

Swinging is a favourite amusement with them, and the love of it by no means confined to children. The ladies seemed surprised when I told them that I had for some time left off this diversion, though I liked it much when a child. I cannot wonder, however, that they continue to be fond of the pastimes of early life, since they continue always to be children in understanding; and there is something reasonable in their love of this exercise, since it is the *only* one which they are permitted to take, and that only at the seasons of their two great holidays.

CHAP. XX.

Tatar Carriage—Houses—Furniture—Stoves—Women's Apartments—Construction of a Tatar Cottage—Marriages—Wedding of a Son of Atti Bey Murza—Plurality of Wives—Runaway Matches—Priority in Marriage determined by Seniority, and not by Choice—Share of Property inherited by a Widow—Guardianship—Tatar Character.

The common Tatar carriage is a long covered cart or waggon, some of two, and others of four wheels, called a *madjaar*. Few, even of the richest among them, have any better vehicle than this to take out their wives and families in. When a Tatar lady goes to visit her mother, or other friends, all her attendants go with her, and she expects to be met at her carriage with as much ceremony as if she came in a state coach.

The embellishments of a Tatar room are few; it is however warm, clean, and comfort-

able. The floors, which are always formed of mud, are covered over, *even in the poorest houses*, with coarse grey blanketing; in the best, with Turkish matting or carpets. Cushions are ranged for seats, and also for the back to lean against, along two sides of the room. Around the white-washed walls of the female apartments, hang the specimens of the industry of its inhabitants, viz. embroidered napkins, handkerchiefs, &c. and on the shelves are seen various articles of dress, the robes and kaftans of the ladies. Besides this display, there is always a pile of coverlids, mattresses, and cushions for their beds, over which is thrown a fine covering, often of thin muslin, to give a glimpse of the rich silks and satins of which they generally are made. The other articles of furniture are, a small Turkish table, and a large chest, which is painted red, green, and half a dozen other colours.

On one side of the room, a shelf supports their dishes, glasses, cups, &c. The last they pride themselves on having handsome; and always give coffee, as in Turkey, with a double

cup. Sherbet is commonly offered in a China basin.

Their windows are not glazed, but latticed, and in winter are closely papered, leaving only a small space in each for a piece of glass. In summer they are fancifully decorated with slips of paper placed across the lattice-work.

The Tatar stoves are excellently adapted for retaining and diffusing heat: when they have been made very hot, and the embers are in a fit state to be shut up, the door is affixed to the mouth of the oven, and a stiff mortar is put all round, to prevent the heat from escaping. This door is always in the entrance room, but the stove projects into the sitting-room.

The women's apartments of the richer Tatars are situated within an inclosure, through the gates of which none but servants of the family, and female visitors, are admitted. Of the former, only one or two have the privilege of entering the rooms themselves. The master has another house, distinct from this building, in which he receives his guests.

The peasant has almost always two rooms,

of which the inner serves for his wife's apartment, and the outer is used as a kitchen.

The cottages of the Tatar peasants, for cheapness of construction, rapidity of building, and simplicity of materials, are perhaps unrivalled; and the inside is generally kept cleanly, especially those of the mountain Tatars. They are constructed of oaken stakes, whose ends are driven perpendicularly into the ground, and stand above it seven or eight feet, and from one to one foot and a half distant from each other; into these, liggers are entwined, and the whole are well plastered within and without, and white-washed when dry. The roof has rafters, crossed with liggers, upon which ashes, marl, or earth are heaped; but all the more wealthy boors tile their houses. The sheds, cow-houses, stables, and all that belongs to a Tatar farm-yard, is equally composed of stakes and liggers, and made warm by being plastered with cow-dung.

When a Tatar desires to marry, and has fixed upon the family from which he intends to choose his wife, (in which determination he must for the most part be influenced by interest, although

the reputed beauty or good qualities of his bride may perhaps have been described to him by her attendants), his first step is to obtain the consent of the father. This being accomplished, presents are sent, according to the circumstances of the suitor, who now visits in the family on a footing of increased familiarity. None of the female part of it, however, are on any occasion visible to him, unless he can by stealth obtain a glance of his fair one, who possesses the superior advantage of seeing him whenever he comes to the house, through the lattice-work which incloses the apartments of the women.

At the period fixed for the wedding, a Tatar Murza sends to all the neighbouring villages an invitation to come and partake of his festivity and good cheer. Two, three, or more villages in a day are thus feasted, and this lasts a week, ten days, or a fortnight, according to the wealth of the bridegroom. Each guest takes with him some present, which is as handsome as his means will allow: a horse, a sheep, a lamb, various articles of dress, nay, even money, are presented on this occasion.

Much ceremony takes place in preparing the intended bride on the evening before the wedding, of which I have been a witness. The poor girl either was, or appeared to be, a most unwilling victim. She was lying on cushions when I first entered, covered so as not to be seen, and surrounded by the girls who were her particular friends, the rest of the women attending less closely. The girls, at intervals, loudly lamented the loss of their companion, and she joined in the voice of woe. At length the women told her that it was time to commence the preparations. In an instant the girls all seized her, and uttering loud cries, attempted to withhold her from the women, who, struggling against them, endeavoured to force her away. This scene lasted till the bride was near suffering seriously from their folly, for she fainted from continued exertion, and the heat of the crowd; but this may be said to have ended the contest, for they were obliged to give room and air for her to revive, and some little time after she had recovered, the women took formal possession of their new associate. They then began to dye her fingers, her toe-

nails, and afterwards her hair, which being tied up, she at last was left to repose. During the whole time I was there, she would not shew her face; and in general I have observed, that if one tells a Tatar girl that it is said she is about to be married, she runs immediately out of the room, and will never speak to a stranger on that subject.

The share which the priest has in the ceremony, is, I believe, very slight: he attends the house of the bride's father, and asks at her window, whether she consents to the marriage. If she answers in the affirmative, he says some short ejaculatory prayer, blesses the couple in the name of the prophet, and retires. For this he receives a present of considerable value; a horse, or a sheep, or money.

The principal ceremony takes place on the day when the bride is brought home to her husband's house; and the chief visitors are then invited. Eating, drinking, and dancing to the music of a drum and bagpipes, form the greatest part of the entertainment, till the cavalcade sets out to meet the bride. She is always met at the frontiers of the estate on which the bridegroom

resides, all the guests attending, and conducting the lady to her future dwelling.

The party, when on the road, forms a gay and lively concourse, in which he, who in England would be called *the happy man*, is the only person who has not the appearance of being cheerful. Apparelled in his worst suit of clothes, with unshaven face, and perhaps badly mounted, he rides where he is least conspicuous, while a friend has the charge of leading another horse* for him, which is always richly caparisoned. When the party attending the bride is arrived at the place of meeting, the mother, or some duenna who has the superintendance of the business, first makes a present of value to the person who leads the horse, which, if it be a shawl, as is generally the case, is tied round the neck of the animal. Afterwards, many small handkerchiefs coarsely embroidered, and little pieces of linen, or of coarse printed cotton, are distributed, for which the guests contend in horse-races.

* At the wedding of Afsoot Tchelebi this was a handsome Circassian horse, for which he gave five hundred rubles; the saddle and trappings cost three hundred more.

This occupies much time, and during the whole of it, the carriage which contains the bride waits at the distance of nearly half a mile. It is never brought nearer to the party, but the lady's father, or one of her brothers, attends it, in order to see the charge safely executed of delivering her *unseen* into the house of her husband. The better to effect this, the carriage is hung round with curtains inside, and if the party arrive somewhat early at the village, the vehicle is detained at the entrance of it till near the close of day, and till it is supposed that all are occupied in eating.

When she reaches the door of her new prison, sherbet is brought her to drink, and some kind of sweetmeat is given with it. She is next presented with a lamb, which is actually put into the carriage with her, and afterwards transferred to one of her attendants. At length, after much bustle and preparation, the court being previously cleared of all spectators, large coarse blanketing is fixed up, so as to prevent all possibility of her being seen, and then, wrapped in a sheet, she is carried by her brother into the house. Here

fresh forms and ceremonies await her. Being received into one of the most private rooms, a curtain is fixed up so as entirely to cover one corner of it. Behind this the poor girl is placed, who, after the annoyance and fatigue she has undergone, is glad to rest as much as she is able in this nook of her cage. Decorated now in all her gayest attire, and glittering with gold and brocade, she is still not permitted to be seen, except by her mother and female friends, who busy themselves in arranging her clothes in proper order, and in adorning the room with a profusion of gay dresses, embroidered handkerchiefs and towels, rich coverlids, and cushions of cotton or Turkish silk. All these are distributed around the room; even the *shifts,* being new for the occasion, are hung up with the rest, along the walls of the apartment, forming an extraordinary sort of tapestry.

While this arrangement is taking place, the bridegroom, having parted with most of his guests, begins to prepare for a visit to his bride. Being now washed, shaven, and gaily drest, he is allowed about midnight to see his wife for an

hour, at the expiration of which, he is summoned to retire. Throughout the whole of the next day, she is destined to be fixed in a corner of the room, and to remain *standing* during the visits of as many strangers as curiosity may bring to see her. The men employ themselves in horse-racing; and three or four articles of some value are given for the winners. The bridegroom makes a point of paying an early visit to those whom he considers his friends, taking with him some little present of his wife's embroidery.

Whenever a wedding took place among the Tatars of our own village, they always invited me to attend, and if by any cause I was prevented from going, they would send me some of every sort of pastry which they had prepared for the occasion. If I went, a party came to escort me, and a band of music either accompanied them, or met me at the entrance of the village. It likewise attended me when I returned home.

December 21st, O. S. 1819. The wedding of one of the sons of Atti Bey Murza is now going on in this neighbourhood, where it is

supposed that the persons who will assemble on the last day of the ceremony will not be fewer than a thousand, and that the money expended will not be less than seven or eight thousand rubles. The receiving of guests will have lasted eight days, and on each day from four to five hundred persons have attended.

It is by no means rare for a Tatar *peasant* to expend from one thousand to two thousand rubles at his wedding, though there are many who are compelled by poverty to more frugality.

The excess to which this custom is carried amongst the Tatar peasantry, exceeds credibility. In fact, a marriage amongst them is said to be frequently the ruin of the party. For the purchase of his wife, and the presents he gives her in clothes, and the distribution of other presents amongst whole villages who are invited to the ceremony, oblige him to sell a great part of his live-stock, and not seldom the whole of it: oxen, horses, cows and sheep, are sold without mercy; his magazines under ground are emptied; and besides all this, he has been known to borrow money at an interest of never less than from two

to three per cent. per month. An incumbrance such as this, Tatar industry does not soon surmount, and long continued poverty is the consequence of indulging this ambition.

It is well known that the Mahometan law admits of a plurality of wives. Four are allowed; but few Tatars are found to have more than one. As long as they continue to live in unity with the first it very seldom happens that they take a second; for the women, though brought up in such perfect subservience and submission, have still the same passions and feelings as ourselves, and can as ill brook to share with another the affections of their husbands. Whether or not the existence of the law, and the knowledge of the right which it confers, may stimulate them to a more attentive observance of their duties, and more constant endeavours to maintain undivided the regard of their lords, I will not venture to say, but I think it by no means an improbable effect; certain it is, that though a Tatar husband is supreme and absolute, and though he considers his wife most perfectly his slave, still is he affectionate and kind to

her, and instances of unhappy marriages are rare.

In cases where husbands have two or more wives, separate apartments and separate establishments must be given them; they will never consent to live together, and always regard each other with feelings of hatred, jealousy and pride.

The priest possesses the power of giving a divorce under particular circumstances. If the husband beat or ill use his wife, she may complain to the Mulla, who, attended by the community of the village, comes to the house, and pronounces a formal separation between the parties. The woman goes back to her own relations.

Runaway matches, though not common, sometimes happen, and appear to be as valid as those which are sanctified by the priest. No other shame attaches to them, than that which results from the omission of their proud ceremonials and festivities. The woman considers herself as effectually bound to the man, and he as faithfully attaches himself to her, as if they had passed through the long ordeal of a Tatar marriage. An

instance of this happened in the village of Karagoss, amongst our own labourers.

A Tatar having more than one daughter, will not give the younger in marriage before the elder, even though a higher price be offered for her; therefore, be her beauty or disposition ever so much commended and extolled by her attendants, the girl has no chance of being married sooner than her sisters, or perhaps, if there be many of them, of getting a husband at all. Among the peasantry, however, this rule is possibly dispensed with. The daughter of a Murza may not marry a peasant, and the number of her own rank is now diminished to a small one.

By law, a man may marry the widow of his brother. At the death of the husband the wife inherits one-third of his personal property, and the children divide the remainder.

Guardianship of children is vested in the brothers of the deceased, and widows also become their wards.

In case of landed property, the tribunals of the Russian government have power over the guardians of estates, and a yearly account of

income and disbursement must be given, and attested in the provincial courts, in order to prevent the person in trust from appropriating to his own use, that of which he has the charge.

The landed estate descends to the male heir, subject, however, to the maintenance of the family.

The highest points of excellence in the Tatar character are their sobriety and chastity, for both of which they are universally remarkable and praiseworthy. The Tatar law, I have been told, in cases of infidelity, sentences the offender to be placed in a grave dug for the purpose, when, the whole neighbourhood being assembled from many versts round, each person present flings a stone, and the delinquent is thus sacrificed to the rage of offended feelings.

The Crim Tatars, however, now living under the Russian government, and subject to Russian laws, are no longer able to exercise their own customs, and this, among the rest, has fallen into disuse.

CHAP. XXI.

Funerals—Anniversary of the Death of Relatives—Fasts and Feasts—Charms and Amulets—Mendicants—Presents to Lying-in Women—Houses of the Stepp Tatars—Small-Pox—Vapour Baths.

I WAS present at the burial of an old woman who died in the village of Karagoss. This ceremony usually takes place about twelve hours after death. When the persons appointed to attend the funeral were assembled, the body was brought out of the house and laid upon a hurdle. Having first been well washed, some coarse new linen, sewn together in proper lengths for the purpose, was folded round it, and it was finally covered with the best kaftan and pelisse of the deceased. The corpse was next brought out by the bearers, from the shed in which these preparations had been made, and placed

upon the ground at some little distance. The Mulla, and some men hired to sing, then assembled round it, and some short ejaculatory prayers were offered, during which the women stood attentive, a few paces from the spot. After the prayers and singing were ended, the bearers raised the hurdle (which was affixed to very long poles, so as to allow four or five men to carry it, both before and behind), and set off at a very quick pace, almost running. The women instantly began crying and howling, and followed the corpse with loud lamentations to the extremity of the village.

As the rapidity with which the bearers proceeded soon heated and tired them, they were relieved by others of the villagers, who all kept pace, and did not interrupt the procession for an instant by their changes. The priest, and some men from another village, attended on horseback. Arrived at the grave, which was prepared on the open Stepp, the body was placed on the ground, and the men gathered round it, praying as before. In the act of praying they hold up the hand, as if reading

from it, and at the close of the prayer pass one hand over the forehead, or both down either side of the face. This part of the ceremony being over, they all went to a short distance, and seating themselves in a ring, were read to by the Mulla, and by some other persons. While this was going on, the son of the deceased distributed a small sum of money among those who were present, sending it round by one of his friends. My little boy being with me, he, among the rest, was offered a few kopeeks. These I at first was unwilling to let him take, but the man who brought them insisted on his accepting them; and when I asked him for what purpose they were given, he replied, "to procure the prayers of those present for the deceased, that she may be received into Heaven."

Having mixed a portion of quick-lime with the earth, they now prepared to put the corpse into the grave. This was dug perpendicularly for about four feet, at which depth an excavation was made on one side, nearly large enough to admit the width of the body. In this exca-

vated niche it was laid, and some papers* written by the Mulla were disposed about it; one being placed on the breast, expressive of the character of the deceased; another in the hand, intended likewise as a sort of passport at the gates of Heaven; and a third above the head, which is said to be an intimation to the Evil One to refrain from disturbing the bones of a true believer. These papers having been properly arranged, stakes were fixed obliquely across the grave, from the upper to the lower side, opposite the body. They were placed very close to each other, and a quantity of hay being put over them, the earth was thrown in, and large stones collected to cover the whole.

The final ceremony at the grave is a repetition of prayers and singing; the party then adjourn to the house of the deceased, where

* I persuaded the Mulla to give me copies of these papers, but as they were written in Arabic, I found difficulty in getting them translated. Having given them to a Tatar Sacerdatal for that purpose, I never received them again. I have little doubt that he handed them over to the Effendi, who prevented their being returned to me.

they and others, including all relations and friends, are feasted for one, two, or three successive days, according to the power and possessions of the mourners. After the dispersion of the other attendants, the Mulla remains alone, and reads by the grave.

The Tatars believe that the spirits of the bad walk for forty days after death. In this case, they say, it is requisite to uncover the grave, and either shoot the dead body, cut off its head, or take out its heart.

I once inquired of a Tatar, if the passports given to the dead were indiscriminately granted to all; and when he answered in the affirmative, I further asked him, how a favourable character could be conscientiously given to such persons as a known robber or murderer? "We believe," said he, "that none are so bad as that *some* good may not be found in them, and that the soul will only remain in Hell till it has expiated the sins committed in this life, or until Mahomet has made sufficient intercession for it."

The Tatars commemorate the anniversary of the death of their relatives, on which occasion

all the women and girls of the village visit the grave. The nearest relations remain reading and praying around it for about an hour, and the other women arrange themselves at some distance. The prayers being finished, all seat themselves together within sight of the grave, when pancakes, and a finer sort of bread, are distributed amongst the party. I was present at one of these ceremonies: the woman deceased had left five children, the two eldest of whom (girls of fourteen and sixteen years of age) evinced much real sorrow for her loss. In the interval of twelve months their father had married again, and his second wife made one of the party. Soon after he divorced this woman, on account of the badness of her temper, and he is since married to a third.

The fast of the Oroza is a very severe one, and kept with equal strictness by rich and poor. It consists, as is well known, in abstinence from food and drink from sunrise to sunset. When it falls in harvest time, the men are frequently unable to work, in consequence of its debilitating effects. They wash their faces,

and even rinse their mouths with water, but though parched with thirst, and fainting with fatigue, never venture to swallow a drop. Their favourite recreation of smoking is also denied them, and it is not till they are absolutely reduced to the bed of sickness, that they can obtain any remission of these observances.

At their two Byrams, one of which follows this fast, they enjoy all the gaiety of which a Tatar life is capable. On these occasions, the peasantry of most of the surrounding villages visit their Murza. Much ceremony appears on their first meeting, each person approaching him in order, kneeling on one knee, kissing his hand, and putting it to his forehead. They then seat themselves indiscriminately, and little consciousness is seen of any difference of rank between them. He regales them with coffee and sherbet, which latter is a very favourite drink with them, and is simply coarse honey mixed with water. Another, and I believe the only strong liquor which they are allowed, is called booza: it is made either from rice or millet,

and with this, it is said, they occasionally get much intoxicated; but the vice of drunkenness is very rare among the Tatars in the Crimea, and I believe is never an habitual one.

Wine they universally refuse, and even in cases of sickness, require the consent of their priest before they will drink it. This, in some instances within my own knowledge, has not been granted when it might have been of essential service.

Many of them drink brandy without scruple, alleging that Mahomet only forbad the use of *fermented* liquors. This is, however, only the plea of the most ignorant or the most wilful. I have seen them drink beer, which must be just as objectionable, under this view of the law, as wine, but they were not informed how it was made.

I once inquired of a Tatar gentleman, if it were true that the Mahometans believe women to have no souls: "certainly not," replied he, "but the perfect seclusion in which they live makes it impossible to admit of their praying in public, and it is contrary to our law that they

should do so." For my own part, I have seen the Tatar women pray, both at the stated hours, and also in an ejaculatory manner, with a zeal and devotion which left me no doubt of their faith and hope.

The old men are generally very strict attendants at mosque, but the young seem to go seldom. I was once a secret witness of their ceremonies in a village *metchet**, but observed nothing remarkable. The most religious of them place their ambition in acquiring a sufficient fund to carry them to Mecca; a visit to which, procures for them the title of Hadgee, or Pilgrim.

The Tatars wear a great number of charms and amulets, as preservatives from sickness and other dangers. They commonly consist of some written paper, purchased from the Mulla, and carefully sewn up in a piece of cotton or silk. These hang in strings about the neck, are suspended by the women to the hair, and are worn by the men in the centre of the back, stitched to the outer garment. They use this remedy for

* Mosque, or place of worship.

the sickness of their horses as well as for their own, and one of them lending my son a bridle, begged him to take care of the amulet attached to it, "for which," said he, "I paid five rubles." Another of their favourite specifics is a bag of millet tied round a horse's neck, which, as it is applied either for a *lame foot* or a *sore back*, is, I suppose, *equally efficacious* for each. They likewise throw an egg, or eggs, into the face of a horse which is ill; but that this charm is not *always* effective, I can answer from my own experience. These superstitions, gross as they may appear, are by no means confined to the lower class. During the illness of one of my children, the steward of a neighbouring Murza, who accidentally came to the house, informed me that his master had the power of curing it. "He will write a paper for you," said the man, "which you must burn, and hold the child over the smoke of it: this done, she will recover; or perhaps he will direct you to sew up the paper without looking at it, and let her constantly wear it. Do not hesitate to send to him, if you desire it." I had no occasion to try the strength

of this charm, as my child recovered without its assistance.

In common with many other nations of the East, they retain the superstition of the evil eye, which is too well known to require description; connected with this, is the belief, that the admiration of a stranger is liable to bring bad luck upon their childreu, cattle, &c.; and the very ancient method of averting its ill consequences, by spitting on the object supposed to be affected.

Another, and more singular prejudice, which pervades the better informed as well as the lower class of people, is that respecting bees. They suppose, that if any robbery be committed where a number of hives is kept, the whole stock will gradually diminish, and in a short time die; "*for bees*," say they, "*will not suffer thieving.*" This remark has been more than once made to me by respectable, and, on other subjects, apparently sensible persons.

In cases of epidemic disease amongst cattle, a Tatar expects to cure it by cutting off the head of one of them, and burying it in a hole.

This I believe is a sacrifice to the devil, or evil spirit, who has sent the contagion.

It is a very common custom in the Crimea, with the Tatars as well as the Bulgarian settlers, to stick up a horse's skull near their houses, in order to preserve them from witchcraft. It appears, I am told, from ancient authority, that a somewhat similar superstition prevailed among the earliest known inhabitants of this country, (the Taurians), who however made use of a human skull for this purpose.

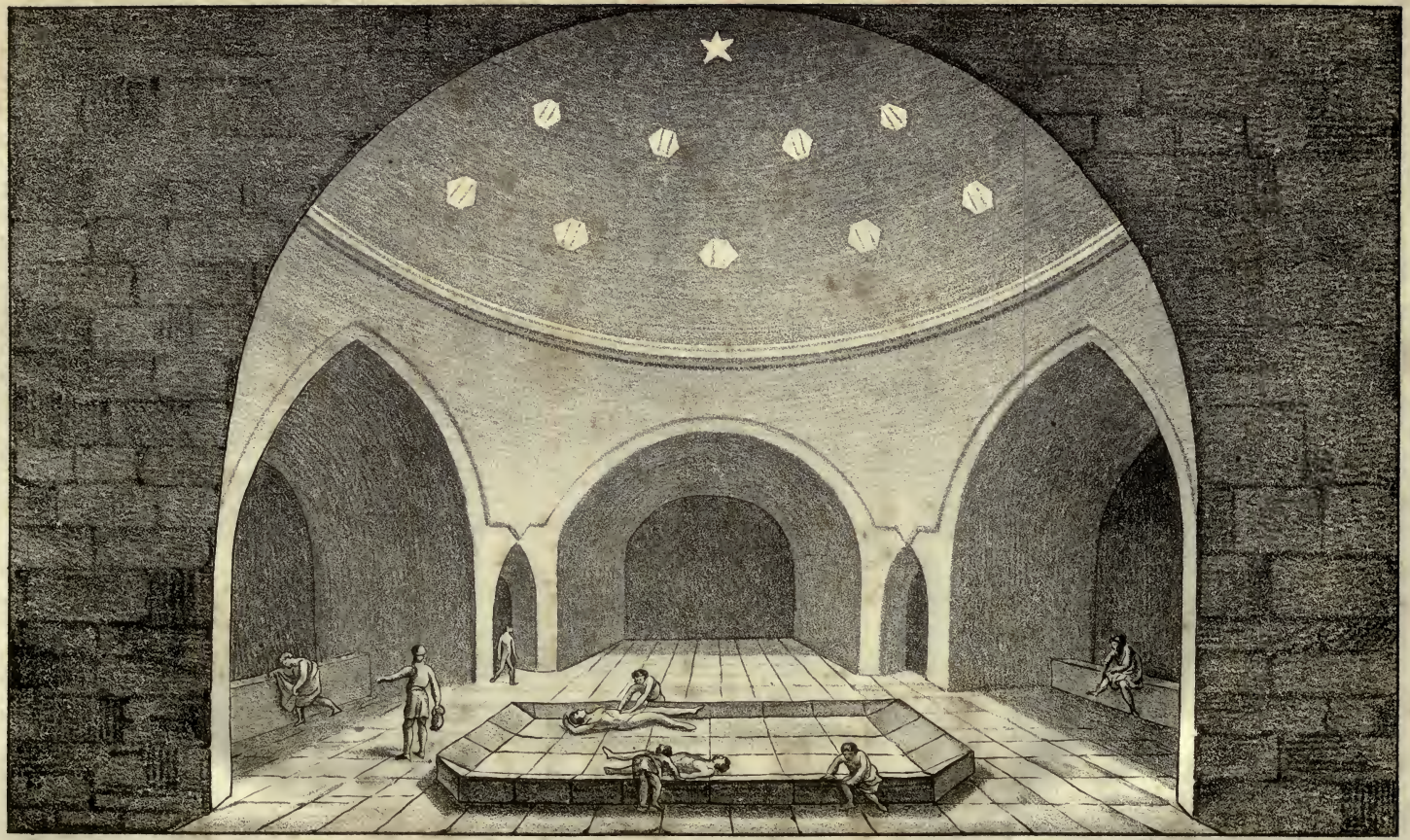
A Tatar, who was hired to go from Karagoss to Odessa, refused to set out on a Tuesday, considering it an unlucky day; "for," said he, "I once began a journey on that day, and lost two horses by it, so that I would not again run the risk for one thousand rubles." He added, that it was against the law; which I cannot believe, since it is not probable that Mahomet, who allows his followers to work on their Sabbath, should prohibit them from doing so on any other day.

Mendicants are very rare among the Tatars; their mode of life is so simple, and the few wants

they have beyond what their own labour gives them, are supplied at so little cost, that the son finds the maintenance of his parents, when advanced in life, no burden to him; and his children are an addition of wealth to his store. In the few cases which occur of the old being reduced to beg, I am told that they never enter a Tatar cottage to ask charity, and meet with a denial; money, clothes, bread, or some sort of food, is given to them, and a Tatar would be ashamed who would refuse to listen to this call upon his humanity.

At the birth of a child, it is universally the custom for the other females of the village to visit the lying-in woman, each bringing some present, either of food, clothes, or money. However trifling their gifts may be, they are accepted, while the not giving would be considered a disgrace. How far this custom extends among the rich Tatars, I cannot say, but among the poor it is very general.

It is rare to see either lame or blind people among them, and they are remarkable for having fine dark eyes, and teeth of extreme white-



INTERIOR OF A TARTAR BATH AT BAKTCHSERAI.

J. Boosey & Co., Lithog., 310, Strand.

ness. These latter they frequently employ in chewing a sort of gum, or paste, prepared by themselves from the root of a plant, and called *sahkuz*. Their ears are singularly large, and they never attempt to cover them, but constantly wear their caps low, on purpose to make them stick out. How variable a form has beauty!

The houses of the Stepp Tatars are often dug in the ground, to such a depth as to require only roofing to complete them. These being impervious to the air, are warmer in winter, and cooler in summer, than the usual huts, which are built of wood and plastered.

It is singular that, during the whole of my residence at Karagoss, I have never seen or heard of the small-pox among the Tatars, though the Greeks in the immediate neighbourhood have had it with great virulence. Vaccination is practised in the towns, but in the villages it is received slowly and unwillingly.

The use of vapour baths is very general, both among the Tatars and Russians, who heat them, however, in a different manner. The Tatar bath generally consists of three rooms, the innermost

of which is heated by the steam from a copper of boiling water: this is admitted into the apartment by a door, and the heat is regulated by numerous small windows in a dome above, which are removed and replaced at pleasure.

The outer room is used for dressing, and the second contains two or three water-baths, for those who prefer that mode of bathing.

The Russian bath is heated by a trench full of stones, which are rendered red-hot by a furnace below. From water thrown upon these, the necessary vapour is created; and as the heat is greater the nearer one approaches to the roof, there is always a flight of steps in the room, by ascending which, any requisite degree may be obtained.

CHAP. XXII.

Tatar Food — Instruments — Games — Horse-Racing — Appearance of the Tatar on Horseback — Shoes — Agirnish — Execution of Convicts — Agriculture — Manner of Threshing — Threshing-Floor — Method of Stacking Hay on the South Coast.

The food of the Tatars consists chiefly of sour milk, or paste. From childhood they are so accustomed to the use of sour food, that they eat every sort of acid with extreme avidity. They devour unripe fruit with great greediness, and suck lemons in preference to oranges. They seldom eat fresh milk, but immediately it comes from the cow, it is first boiled, and afterwards churned. The butter is then melted, and poured into a skin. The buttermilk is put into a cask, which stands ready to receive the overplus of every day's consumption, and which, thus becoming sour, is saved until the time when their

cows are dry. A very small jug of it will at that time sell for a petack. They also make cheese, which is not dried, but salted and pressed in small thin pieces. These are afterwards put down into an earthen pot, or small tub, with a sufficient quantity of salt to keep them. They prepare paste for eating in a great variety of ways, making it in different shapes, and frying or boiling it with butter. Sometimes it is served up in the form of pancakes, sometimes of patties, containing a small portion of meat and onion. One of their favourite dishes consists of small balls of paste sent up in sour cream. Another, which is by far the most conformable to a stranger's taste, is made of minced meat, seasoned and rolled in vine leaves, which they put into a saucepan with butter, and stew over a slow fire. They eat rice, as the Turks do in Pillau, with boiled raisins, and make a cold soup of these latter, as well as of figs, which is in fact no more than the water in which they have been boiled. When melons and cucumbers are ripe, they live almost entirely upon them, devouring them unpeeled, and requiring

only the addition of bread to complete their meal.

The Russians, Greeks, and Bulgarians eat frogs, land tortoises, and snails, which last they boil, and having taken from them the shell, dish them up with flour, salt, and oil. Snails are, however, only considered good and eatable at two seasons of the year, viz. in the autumn, and very early in the spring, just before the frost goes, at which time they are found about the roots of trees. As soon as they begin to crawl they become slimy, and are no longer palatable.

At their dinners they sit in a circle around a small table about a foot from the ground, over which is thrown a large table-cloth, or more commonly a very long napkin, covering the knees of all the party. The first dish, which generally consists of soup, is then brought in, with slices of bread, and a spoon for each person. All eat out of the same dish, and the use of forks is unknown. When roast or boiled meat is sent to table, the master of the house cuts it into slices, and helps his guests with his fingers, placing every one's portion upon his bread, or upon the

tray. At their parties they serve up ten or fifteen dishes, one at a time; and at a friendly dinner I have never seen less than six. Water is commonly drank at table, and when that is removed, excellent coffee, often without sugar or cream, is handed round. An ewer and basin are brought to each person, before and after the meal. It is not their custom to say grace aloud, but I have remarked the elder women of the family repeating some sort of prayer before they begin to eat.

The musical instruments of the Tatars are the most *unmusical* of their kind. They consist of the pipe, bagpipe, and drum; the former of which is the companion of the shepherd boy, and the two latter the constant accompaniments of their wedding feasts. I have often enquired for national songs, but could never hear of any that were worth, or indeed would bear translating: those which my boys learnt among the Tatar lads, were generally founded on some village anecdote. I cannot find that they have the usual oriental taste for tales of necromancy and enchantment; but they are fond of ghost stories,

and the fact of the devil walking in the garden at Karagoss, is not doubted by any one of them.

The boys have many very active games, some of which resemble those of our English children. Among those peculiar to themselves, are several played with bones, which they throw from the back of the hand, and catch again very expertly. In one of their games, the bones are placed at a short distance, and then projected forward by a stick thrown at them. This last is the amusement of men as well as of boys. Wrestling is performed much in the same manner as in England, excepting that they grasp each other by the sash, so that the position of the body is less upright. Kicking, I am told, is not allowed, and the only exertion of the wrestlers is an endeavour to throw each other by tripping up the heels.

Horse-racing is a most favourite amusement with the Tatars, at all their weddings, and on every holiday. They have no stated course, however, and run to no stated distance. The manner in which the race is conducted is as follows: one of the party holding a handkerchief (the prize contended for) in his mouth,

sets off at full speed, followed by one, two, or perhaps ten or twenty others. He who overtakes the first, snatches the prize, and is in like manner pursued by the rest, who all endeavour to get possession of the handkerchief, or at any rate to prevent the rider who bears it from effecting his return to the spectators. It becomes the property of him who retains it, till he can contrive to reach the horses of those who are engaged in observing the contest. Thus the race is shorter or longer, according to the number and success of the competitors. There is sure to be a full attendance at this amusement, whenever it may occur, but chiefly at their weddings, when every Tatar who possesses a tolerably good horse, considers himself called upon to display the skill of the animal and his own, in this popular and national diversion.

The Tatars ride well, and in their holiday clothes look very graceful on horseback; but when they wear the large cloak called a bourka, it gives a ferocity to their appearance which is almost alarming to those not accustomed to see them. These mantles are of felt, and resist the rain.

They are manufactured in the Crimea from wool, and are either naturally of a rusty brown colour, or are dyed black. The Circassian bourkas are made of camel's or goat's hair, and are more expensive. The sheep-skin pelisses and lamb's-wool caps, which are assumed by the Tatars in winter, increase not a little their savage looks. Around the waist they wear either a long girdle, of white or coloured linen, or else a broad belt, very tightly fastened. On one side hangs a knife, and a tobacco bag and pipe are commonly slung behind. Thus accoutred, and having with him his flint, steel, and morsel of *amadou**, the Tatar is ready for all expeditions. The use of fire-arms is not allowed them, and few remain possessed of the bows and arrows which were the national weapons of their forefathers. Maksout Murza has a bow which is formed entirely of bone.

* Amadou is a spungy substance used by the Tatars instead of tinder, and with which they light their pipes: it is prepared from a fungus, growing on trees, which is boiled, and then beaten till it becomes tender, and afterwards dried. There is also a lighter kind, the excrescence of a plant.

The common shoes of the Tatar peasants are of cow or ox hide undressed, which is cut in the form of a long oval, and sewn up at one end so as to cover the toes. The shoe is then drawn round the foot, and laced with string. In dry weather the Russian bark shoes are occasionally worn, and are considered very durable. The art of tanning and dying leather, is confined, I believe, to the towns of Baktcheserai and Karasubazar, at which places nearly all the shoes used in the peninsula are made, and forwarded to the other bazars. At the former place there is also a manufactory for knives.

The remarkable mountain called Agirmish is in sight of Karagoss, and partly included in the estate on which I resided. It is conjectured by Pallas to be the Cimmerian mountain of the ancients, and certainly, from its detached and prominent appearance, it seems well to deserve a distinctive appellation. In the forest which clothes its summit is a perpendicular cave, which bears among the Tatars the name of the Devil's Well. It is said that, under the government of the Khans, criminals were sometimes

sentenced to be thrown into this abyss. There is likewise a tradition, that on one occasion, when some millet was cast down for the sake of experiment, the seed made its re-appearance at a spring which rises near the post-station of Granitchkey.

In the spring of 1818 seven Tatars who had been found guilty of various robberies and murders, in the districts of Akmetchet, Theodosia, Kertch, and Port Patch, were sentenced by the Russian law to receive the punishment of the *knout** in each of these towns. Having first undergone this dreadful penalty at Akmetchet, they were conducted to Theodosia, heavily ironed, and lodged in the gaol there till the hour appointed for the flogging. They were then taken to the market-place, where hundreds of spectators were assembled to witness the scene; and from an Englishman present on that occasion, I received the following account of the transaction. The culprits, each in his turn,

* The true pronunciation of this word would perhaps be better represented, if it were spelt *knoot*.

were fastened to an inclined post, having a ring at the top, to which the head was so tightly fixed, by means of a rope, as to prevent the sufferer from crying out. The hands were closely tied on either side, and at the bottom were two rings for the feet, which were in like manner secured. The back was then bared, and the plaster, or rag, which had been applied after the previous whipping, was torn off. The Tatar sacerdatal, attended by a Tatar priest, next advanced, and read aloud the crimes for which the offenders were punished, together with the sentence of the law. This took up nearly half an hour.

The knout has a very heavy thong, as thick as a man's wrist, and weighing from two to three pounds. The lash is of leather, about the breadth of a broad tape, and narrowing at the end; the handle is about two feet long. With this weapon the executioner now approached, and giving one cut, walked back again to the distance of about forty yards. He then returned, flourishing his whip, and struck again, till the appointed number of strokes was given,

and till it was certain that the poor wretch was all but dead. At every blow the blood spirted from the wound; but the previous preparation prevented the possibility of exclamation. Each one, when his flogging was finished, was unbound, and having the rag replaced on his back, was removed into a cart, till all had been thus disposed of, having witnessed the sufferings of their comrades, and endured their own. Before they left Theodosia, one of them died; and of the seven, I believe, not one lived to undergo the whole of the sentence.

The executioner is a convict, who is suffered to exist for the horrible purpose of inflicting on others the punishment which he has escaped himself; and after the fulfilment of his duty, is reconducted to the prison, from which he is brought for the occasion.

In the case of the murder of a Jew and his family, which occurred in 1816, at the village of Karagoss, a subscription was raised at Theodosia, among persons of that nation, in order to bribe the flogger to make sure of the death of the criminal.

The habits and modes of agriculture of the Tatars are rude and simple. They have not industry sufficient to induce them to labour hard for the acquirement of wealth, and even wealth itself, from the jealousy which it excites among them, can scarcely be considered a desirable possession. The enjoyment of ease and indolence, on any terms, is the summit of their happiness, and he who can command these blessings has no further motive or stimulant to exertion.

Their agricultural implements are as rude as their method of using them. They are made almost entirely of wood, and since iron causes the heaviest part of the expence, they employ as little as possible of that material in their construction. They use a bush harrow to cover the seed in the ground; and the creaking of the wheels of their clumsy waggons may be heard at the distance of one or two versts. When asked why they do not prevent this annoyance by the application of a little grease, their usual answer is, that they are no thieves, and are not ashamed that the world should hear their move-

ments. They sow the most inferior sorts of grain, without any regard to the mixture of other seeds which it may contain. This neglect almost always gives them an abundant crop of weeds with their corn, which they would rather lose altogether than be at the trouble of cleaning.

They defer cutting their hay till very late, and, as if determined that it shall have no goodness remaining, they commonly leave it until after harvest before they carry it home. This double delay, which is wholly without proper cause, where the weather is always so favourable, arises in some measure, I believe, from their native indolence, which makes them wish to postpone the most laborious part of their year.

This custom, so universal among them, of delaying to cart home both their hay and corn, where in so hot a country the one is half burnt up, and the other sheds out so much of its seed on the ground, arises from the singular practice of waiting until the entire village be ready to begin this operation together: so that if ninety-nine out of an hundred be prepared, and one, from accident or idleness, has not finished his

mowing or reaping, the others (regardless of their interest, and consulting their ease) quietly sleep out the time at home, until the idler is ready. The consequences of this inconceivable folly are such as might be expected; the hay-cocks in the meadows are stolen without mercy by the Cossack of the neighbourhood during the night: their oats are threshed out in the field, and fill the panniers of the same banditti, who also turn their horses among the shocks of corn to feast at discretion. Sometimes, though not frequently, unexpected and sudden torrents from the mountains overflow the meadows, and the hay is swept away, or spoiled in a single night.

The corn is almost all fit to carry as soon as it is cut, and is then threshed out upon the Stepp, where every man prepares his threshing-floor with great care, in the following manner: the ground being first pared, so that the grass is cut finely off, it is next well watered until it becomes almost a pool; when the water has soaked in, a layer of clean short straw, chaff, &c. about two inches in thickness, is thrown upon it, in order to preserve it from the sun, which

would otherwise crack and spoil it. As soon as it is somewhat more than half dry, horses are driven round it until it acquires the proper degree of firmness and solidity.

The size of the floor depends upon the number of horses to be used in threshing. When this operation is to be performed, they are fastened abreast by a rope, to a post which stands in the centre. As the horses move round, the rope wraps round the post, and when they have worked up close to it, this rope is expeditiously removed from the neck of the near to that of the off-horse, and they go round once more in an opposite direction, until it is unwound and wound again. If it be expected that the grain will thresh well, the sheaves (which are arranged in close and regular circles) are laid on the floor in the proportion of one hundred to each horse.

The Bulgarians have a curious implement, made with flints fixed in a frame of wood, which they employ in threshing, by driving it over the corn; but it is not so expeditious a method as that of the Tatars.

It is customary with these latter, both in hay time and harvest, to wait until all in the village shall have finished cutting before any one begins to carry home his share: thus the more active and industrious often suffer for the idle. This period of the year is the most toilsome and unpleasant for the proprietors of estates on which these villagers reside. They are obliged to be constantly on the alert, to secure their stipulated proportion of the produce, since the Tatars have in this much trick and chicanery, and take every possible means to deceive. Though in general a quiet and harmless race, not given to violence or open plunder, they cannot resist any promising temptation to theft. It results from the extreme laziness of their character, that they always value an acquisition more which only costs them a little cunning, than one which makes them pay in bodily labour. Thus, robbing a neighbouring garden of its fruit or firewood, is much more agreeable to a Tatar's taste than going to hew wood in a forest a few miles off, though the permission to do so costs him a mere trifle, the stated price being fifty

kopeeks (about fivepence) for as much as a pair of oxen can draw.

This wood is brought to Kaffa, from the distance of about twenty miles, and there sold for four or five rubles the load. I believe the latter to be about the average price, but in the severest part of the winter it is sold as high as eight rubles, and I have even heard of ten, but very rarely. The prime cost always remains fixed at fifty kopeeks.

From this character of them, it may be inferred that they are the very worst labourers in the world; and indeed an English master views with an impatient eye the slow, unwilling, uninterested manner in which the generality of them set about their work. The act of digging in a sitting posture is perhaps as good a specimen as can be given of Tatar industry. It is very usual to see them hewing wood with a pipe in their mouths, and performing this double operation, even in moderate weather, with the additional incumbrance of a heavy pelisse. A Tatar, however, makes very few holidays. He never refuses to work on his own Sabbath, and it

rests with the conscience of his Christian master to enforce, or not, his employment on Sunday.

The method of stacking hay which is used on the south coast is quite peculiar to that part of the Crimea. It is raised upon poles or low trees, five or six feet from the ground. This is probably done to preserve it from wet, in places where the constant descent of water from the mountains would otherwise render it liable to spoil.

CHAP. XXIII.

Tatar Mill—Soil—Course of Crops—Fogs—Prevalent Complaints—Estates—Vineyards—Gardens—Fruit Trees—Kitchen Gardens—Quinces—Onions—Granaries—Herbs—Grasses—Gypsies.

A TATAR mill is the most simple piece of mechanism that can be conceived. Few windmills are employed. The water-mills are all undershot, and being worked by very small streams, seldom move above half the year: for in the height of summer they frequently stand still from drought, and in winter from frost. At these times, it is often necessary to send corn to be ground to the distance of forty or fifty versts. These mills perform their office so badly, that the best wheat which can be procured will not give a fine flour. The only mode of dressing it known here is by sieves at home, and all the fine flour in use throughout the southern govern-

ments of Russia is brought from Moscow (distant from Akmetchet 1397 versts). It sells at from seven to ten rubles per pood, or thirty-six pounds English, while the best home flour, undressed, is bought at from twelve to twenty-five kopeeks the oka.

Rye-flour is universally used by the Tatars in the manufacture of bread, and wheat-flour in that of pastry. The small quantity of good wheat which they rear is almost all sold to purchase the few necessaries which they have occasion to buy.

The soil of the Crimea is various. In some places it is a rich loamy clay, but I believe far the greater part is shallow, rocky, or gravelly; and from the heat of the sun, the grass is burnt up very early in the season. Of corn the average crop is said to be eight for one; I cannot, however, think that, even in favourable years, it exceeds this amount, and I fear that deficient crops are more frequent than abundant ones. The harvest takes place as early as the end of June or beginning of July, and since the rapidity with which the corn is ripened renders it

extremely dry and brittle, it is customary to sow bearded wheat, which is less liable to shake. Much of what is called Arnoot, or spring wheat, is sown by the Russians, Bulgarians, &c.; but for the most part winter wheat of a very inferior quality, rye, some barley, a few oats, or a little hemp, flax, or millet, form the extent of Tatar cultivation.

It is remarkable that barley and oats, which in English husbandry follow in the succession of crops, never prosper so well in the Crimea as when sown on the same land, year after year, for eight, nine, or even ten years, unintermittingly. Arnoot is never sown on fresh land, unless it be ploughed in autumn, the spring rains being, in the most favourable seasons, insufficient to supply the requisite quantity of moisture.

The climate is not so temperate as that of England, the heat in summer being much greater, and the cold in winter infinitely more severe.

These observations having been written on the northern side of the ridge of mountains which

skirt the coast of the Crimea, are not intended to apply to the small, but beautiful tract, which slopes to the sea on their southern exposure.

The winter, however, is of short duration, and frequently breaks up as early as February, so as to admit of ploughing. In the month of March I have known the weather not only mild but warm. The cold, while it lasts, is much increased by the prevalence of north and north-easterly winds, which, moreover, render the heat of summer more dangerous, by subjecting the body to contrary extremes at the same moment. In the finest weather, it is considered unsafe to go out after sun-set without warm clothing.

Sudden fogs prevail in spring, but rains, on which the hopes of the farmer depend, are very uncertain at that season. These fogs are extremely prejudicial to the fruit crop in the Crimea, for even after it is set, and before it has attained half its growth, they very frequently destroy the whole.

Throughout the summer there are heavy dews at night, but, from the remarkable beauty of the

sky and serenity of the air, the evenings for about an hour before sun-set are peculiarly delightful. The autumns are short, the frosts setting in very early, and the leaves falling almost as soon as they change. A fair estimate of the general clearness of the climate may be formed, from an account which we kept of the weather during the first year of our residence at Karagoss; by this it appears, that from February 3d, 1816, to February 3d, 1817, there were only four days on which we did not see the sun.

The prevalent complaints are intermittent fevers and dysenteries, against which, however, a little precaution is a sufficient guard. The latter disease often proves fatal to children in the autumn, in consequence of the inordinate quantity of fruit and raw vegetables which are eaten throughout the whole summer. We have found by experience, that wounds are more difficult to heal than in England, being affected by extremes either of heat or of cold.

Proprietors of estates in the Crimea are, for the most part, very poor, and non-residents receive no interest upon their landed capital.

Those, however, who are resident, may contrive, with industry and assiduity, to make their estates yield them from five to eight, and sometimes as much as ten per cent. annual income, according to the circumstances of their situation and climate.

It is a well known fact, that there are proprietors of estates of one million of rubles in value, who never receive a kopeek of revenue from them. Residing at a distance, they entrust them to stewards, who have neither knowledge nor inclination to make more of them than merely to keep themselves in ease and comfort; and as they are never troubled by a visit from the owner, they are able to carry on this system with impunity.

Vineyards were once a very profitable culture in the Crimea, but since the free and abundant importation of the common wines of the Greek Islands, those of home growth cannot be sold at a price sufficient to defray the expence of labour: many, therefore, of the vineyards at Sudac are, for this reason, no longer managed with the neatness and care which were formerly bestowed

upon them. It has hitherto been customary, at that place, to confine the cultivation of vineyards to the valley; but a few attempts have lately been made to raise the vine on the sides of hills, which seem likely to succeed, and repay the care of the planter. There are several very good cellars attached to the large vineyards at Sudac; in particular, that of Admiral Mordvinoff, which is excavated in the side of a mountain, and is calculated to hold one hundred thousand vedros*; but I do not believe that the wine is often kept for any length of time, nor indeed that it is at all of a nature to admit of keeping. I have, however, tasted three or four very excellent sorts, which have been fabricated by individuals for their private use.

The beautiful spots known by the name of gardens in the Crimea, are very unlike what we understand by the term. That at Karagoss, which is the largest I have seen, comprises not less than 360 English acres, and (with the exception of the very small portion devoted to the

* A vedro is ten quarts, wine measure.

cultivation of kitchen vegetables) is altogether uninclosed. This extensive tract is in fact a complete wilderness of fruit-trees, the thickets and glades of which, occasionally present scenes of the greatest beauty, and through which it requires a little experience to be able to find one's way. The village of Karagoss, at the time of the subjugation, contained 1700 inhabitants, and it is from the union of their deserted domains that the present vast garden has been formed. Not a single house now remains within its circuit, though the foundations of them are to be found in every part. There are likewise numerous wells, some filled up, others overgrown with grass, or thick creeping plants; also the ruins of a Tatar bath, and a Tatar metchet, or mosque, the minaret of which, seen from all parts of the estate, embowered in wood, has a remarkably picturesque appearance, and, with the little stream of the Serensu*, which winds through the garden, forms the most striking ornament of the place.

* In Tatar, "cold water."

Among the fruit-trees of the Crimea, the most remarkable are the walnut trees, which, in the vallies of the south coast, attain to a prodigious size, and form a most delightful shade around some of the Tatar villages. I have been confidently assured, that a single tree has been known to produce sixty thousand walnuts yearly; and a respectable proprietor of Sudac told me, that a tree in his possession bears annually as many as forty thousand.

The mulberries grown at Karagoss, and in the gardens of the Stepp, are of the white kind, and are small and tasteless; but on the south coast the large black mulberry tree is cultivated, and is remarkable for its luxuriance and the perfection of its fruit. It is well known that the olive, fig, and pomegranate, are likewise to be found in the same favoured district; but their produce is too small in quantity to deserve much notice. The beautiful apples, however, from these vallies, are much esteemed at Moscow and St. Petersburgh, whither they are sent in great abundance.

The whole produce of the garden at Karagoss,

including plums, mulberries, &c. has of late been entirely used for the purpose of distillation. The Russians make an excellent kvas of these fruits, and more particularly of the cornelian cherry, which is very common here, and which, as well as sloes, is dried by the Tatars, and preserved for some time. These latter, in their love for acids, devour the wild apples which abound in the garden with great eagerness, and have a method of keeping them, by throwing them into water, and protecting them from the air.

There is a standard apricot tree at Karagoss, the girth of which is eighteen feet one inch.

The cultivation of kitchen gardens in the Crimea depends much upon irrigation, and is performed by setting out, or sowing plants, or seeds, in small beds, so intersected by trenches, that the water, when let in, runs to every plant. The value of all garden ground is estimated by the facility with which it may be watered, and a handsome consideration is often given by one proprietor to another, for the use of water which flows through the land of the

one, from a spring on the other's estate. The water is headed up for the purpose, and when the plants are first raised, is distributed to them twice a day, but afterwards, as they gain strength, this labour is proportionably lessened.

The cabbages of the Crimea are remarkable for their size, often weighing ten oka, or thirty pounds Russian. These are chiefly cultivated by the Greeks, who, with this intent, give a very high rent for new ground, or eligible situations in the neighbourhood of water. They bestow much care upon weeding and irrigation, and the price of the cabbages thus raised, taken promiscuously, is about twelve rubles per hundred. There is land in the Crimea which has let for cabbage gardens for more than a century, and has never been manured. Tobacco, which is grown in considerable quantities, is likewise cultivated by the Greeks; its quality is by no means so fine and mild as that of the Turkish tobacco, the use of which is very general in the south of Russia, and which may be bought for five rubles the oka. It is well known that, with the Tatars, the custom of smoking is not confined

to the male sex; but I have remarked that, among the women, none but the old ones practise it.

Of the pumpkin the Tatars make a very good dish, by boiling it, and eating it with salt, pepper, and butter. It is brought to the consistency of gooseberry fool, and has a taste somewhat like that of boiled apples.

Potlejan* is another favourite food, being boiled with meat, or fried in batter. The maize, or Indian corn, is boiled when very young, and eaten with cold butter. When ripe it is ground, and its flour makes excellent puddings.

Capsicum is much cultivated in the Tatar gardens, and is prepared and used as common pepper.

A Tatar proverb of long standing, but still very correct, commemorates the excellence of "Perekop water-melons, Osmantchuke honey, Haussanbey cabbages, and Karagoss quinces." Perekop, as is well known, is situated on the isthmus which joins the Crimea to the main-land.

* By Pallas, written patildshan; a sort of gourd, and called by him the egg fruit, or melongena.—Vol. ii. p. 391.

The water-melons raised there, and at Cherson, are remarkable for their size and flavour, and are considered an acceptable present even at Constantinople. Osmantchuke is a little Tatar and Russian village, at the foot of Mount Agirmish. Haussanbey is the property of a Greek merchant at Kaffa, and adjoins the estate at Karagoss, on which it is dependent for water. The quinces of this latter place are still very abundant in favourable years; but the blossom of the quince tree, of all others the most delicate in its appearance, is equally so in its formation, and a heavy shower of rain during the time of its flowering inevitably destroys the produce of that season.

Shubash, and all the little villages which are scattered thickly around it, are remarkable for the growth of onions, which are very large and excellent, and, if well got in and properly taken care of, will keep through the severest and most variable winters, a quality which those grown on the south coast do not possess. In the autumn of 1817 we purchased a quantity of these from a Tatar of one of the villages, who grew that

year no less than 10,000 oka of onions. Their price, according to the season, is from seven to twelve kopeeks the oka. Such as are intended to be kept, are preserved in sheds dug under ground, and roofed so as to exclude, as carefully as possible, the admission of frost or wet. The roofs are covered with straw, reeds, or weeds, and afterwards with a layer of earth, almost a foot in thickness. The granaries in which the Tatars deposit their corn are of a similar construction, being dug nearly six feet in depth, and then caved under. They are so formed as to contain from fifteen or sixteen to fifty or sixty tchetverts, according to the usual stock of the persons to whom they belong.

The Tatars find uses for many herbs which we denominate weeds. The young leaves of the dock and sorrel, and the first shoots of nettles, are put into soups, or eaten as spinach; the leaf of the dandelion makes a good salad; wild asparagus is gathered in the gardens; and the wild carrot is in great estimation, and is even taken to market for sale; it is cleaned, salted, and used in soup, or sometimes eaten raw in great quan-

tities. The wild mustard is here gathered, dried, and powdered, and is not, I think, inferior to the Russian mustard sold in the shops; but it has neither the pungency nor the flavour of ours, for though the seed is fine, they have not the proper method of preparing it. Infusion of wormwood with brandy is the common remedy for ague; dried elder flowers and sweet chamomile for coughs; and the *Materia Medica* in the Crimea consists much more of simples than of any imported drugs, which are very dear. The horse-radish grows to a prodigious size on the Stepp, and flowers in large bushes. The root of succory is prepared all over Russia to mix with coffee, and its young leaves are gathered for salad. Capers are collected in great abundance, and sold at two rubles the oka. Wild vines, and hops, ornament the extensive gardens in profusion. The latter are used by the Russians and Germans; and the gypsies make baskets, and binds for various purposes, of the branches of the beautiful white clematis*.

* The gypsies of the Crimea, called Tsigans, resemble in habits and appearance those of England, and, like them, exist

Nearly all the artificial grasses, &c. of England grow spontaneously in the best meadow land of the Crimea. At Karagoss we find clover (both red and white), saintfoin, lentils, tares, cow-grass, chicory, cock's-foot grass, rye-grass, lamb's-tongue, and trefoil.

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chiefly by plunder. They are commonly the musicians at weddings, profess fortune-telling, and have all the tricks and cant of begging. Some of them are tinkers, travelling with a forge, &c.; others are basket-makers, or manufacture a coarse sort of sieve, of horse-hair and dried skins. Sieves are used for so many purposes here to which superior machinery is applied in England, that this last is the most useful and profitable of their employments.

CHAP. XXIV.

Horses—Horses Shoeing—Tatar Forge—Oxen—Meat—Camels—Sheep—Shepherds—Shearing—Lamb-skins—Goats—Dogs—Coursing—Jerboa—Larger Animals—Birds—Locusts—Bees—Salt—Cursory Remarks—Prices of Produce, Labour, &c.

The horse is the constant companion of the Crim Tatar, who will never walk two hundred yards from his own door if he has a horse to ride on. The accumulation of live stock seems to be the universal system of those among them who can afford it; and accordingly the *taboons*, or studs, possessed by some of the Murzas are very considerable. That belonging to Yie Yie Murza, in our immediate neighbourhood, consists of no less than five hundred mares. They appear to have no idea of deriving any fixed revenue from breeding these animals, nor indeed any advantage, that I could understand, from keeping so many. Their pride is gratified by the number

of their taboon, and they never part with any till the want of a little money compels them; they then send them to the markets of Akmetchet or Karasubazar, or privately dispose of them either to Tatars or Russians.

I have known the loss of from forty to fifty horses, in a taboon of three hundred. This was in consequence of a disease, which probably arose from the severity of the winter, and want of food. I do not here speak of the heaviest losses which have been sustained, but of those which fell within my own knowledge. I have heard of others infinitely more severe, but I am not sufficiently acquainted with the particulars to state them with accuracy.

The native horses of the country are small, and ill-looking. The Tatars usually ride them in an amble, and this is the only pace which they go well. Nothing can be more slight and rapid than their method of breaking them in. Having ensnared the animal, by means of a rope fixed at the end of a long light pole, they tie a halter round his neck, so tight that there seems to be danger of strangling him, and in this manner

they pull him about for some few minutes, till they consider him subdued; he is then mounted, and soon becomes tractable. The custom of eating horse-flesh is not in use among the Crim Tatars of the present day, and they indeed deny that it was ever their practice.

Some few Circassian horses are imported, but there are not many proprietors in the Crimea who will put themselves to the expence of buying them. They are remarkably fine animals, and are sold at from two to five hundred rubles, while those of the country may generally be bought for forty rubles, or about two pounds sterling. The most valuable stud I have seen or heard of, is that of General Bekerookoff, who has an estate near Theodosia. This taboon is not large, but remarkable for the size and beauty of the horses, each of which is estimated at five hundred rubles. All which we saw were grey.

The mountain Tatars always have their horses shod, while those of the Stepp only incur that expence when about to undertake long journies. Their method of shoeing is very unlike ours, and (at least for the fore feet) requires, the co-opera-

tion of two men. A rope is fastened round the horse's fetlock, and brought over his back. One of the men, by pulling this, holds up the leg, while the other fixes the shoe. In order to raise the hind feet, they are tied to the tail. Oxen are always thrown down to be shod; this operation is generally performed by the Bulgarians, but very seldom practised by the Tatars.

The interior of a Tatar blacksmith's forge by no means presents that scene of activity which we are accustomed to see in our own country. The fire is made in a round hole, in the centre of the shop, and the bellows are placed flat on the ground, a vent being hollowed out underneath for the admission of air. They are fashioned with two handles, only one of which is generally used, half the attention of the operator being occupied by his pipe, which a Tatar considers of too much importance to be relinquished for ordinary business. The blacksmith, whose stithy is arranged at a convenient height, is seated on the ground, as is likewise his assistant who blows the bellows; a third, who hammers the iron, places himself in the same commodious

position; and thus, that work which in England requires the exertions of the strongest and most athletic, is effected by a Tatar without detriment to his ease and comfort. Yet in all which regards the mere strength of the manufacture, we find the ploughshares thus hammered, exceedingly well executed and durable.

All agricultural labours are performed by oxen, except that of threshing, which is generally done by horses. From the rude and barbarous form in which their ploughs are constructed, seven pairs of oxen are often required in breaking up old grass land. In ploughing a second or third time, they use two, three, or four pairs of oxen. They work these animals until they are upwards of twenty years old, and consider it wasteful to kill them while they are still able to labour. In order that they may earn as soon as possible the cost of their sustenance, they are broken into the plough as early as at two years old. The Tatar oxen are small and ugly, and those more remarkable for size and beauty which are often seen in the Crimea, are brought from the southern provinces of Russia, particularly

from the Poltava government. The cows give but a small quantity of milk, which is perhaps attributable to the dryness of the soil. The best are those of the German breed.

Meat in the Crimea, as in other warm climates, is eaten as soon as killed. The butcher having slain the ox, does not wait until it be cold before he divides it, but immediately skins and cuts it into quarters, throwing it in heaps upon a bench or table, where I have absolutely seen the whole mass still heaving with muscular motion. When it is afterwards cut into smaller portions to be sold, it is not neatly divided into joints, as with us, but every customer has a piece cut off according to his own fancy, so that it is hacked in all directions before the whole is disposed of, which is commonly the case in the course of the first day.

There are some few camels in the Crimea, and many buffaloes. These latter are, of all domestic animals, the most disagreeable and difficult to use, being totally unable to bear extremes of temperature. In hot weather they become altogether unmanageable, and towards noon will

desert their work, running furiously into the first water, to refresh themselves by rolling in the mud. When this fit takes them, they will frequently run with a loaded waggon into the sea. In winter they are almost equally troublesome, since they require to be kept so warm, that huts must be made for them below the surface of the ground. They are extremely destructive among trees, constantly breaking off all the lower branches. The female gives a profusion of milk, which is said to contain a large proportion of cream; but the butter is white, and not so well flavoured as that of the cow. The skin of the buffalo is very valuable, and the Tatars make traces of it wherewith to draw their ploughs and waggons. The strength of these may be estimated, from their power of sustaining the draught of seven pairs of oxen, in ploughing a stiff clay.

The Tatars pride themselves more upon their management of sheep (which are of the broad-tailed breed commonly met with in the East) than of any other cattle; and the listless life of a shepherd seems better adapted than any other

kind of employment to the taste and habits of the nation. Boys intended for this occupation are initiated very early; and by the system of receiving their wages in sheep, which they always keep with their master's flock, very soon acquire a flock of their own. I have known a shepherd receive ten sheep, for taking care of five hundred from the 23d of March to the 26th of October.

It is their custom to give salt in great quantities to their flocks, taking them in the spring to hills where the vegetable food is of a saline nature, and after their return, giving them salt to eat, twice or thrice a week, throughout the summer. In winter, those which are driven out upon the open Stepp, are in great danger of being lost by the drifting of the snow. On this account it is usual to mix a number of goats with the sheep, since the latter, during the violent snow storms, always run before the wind, and would be lost in the pits and holes of the Stepp, but the goats are said to head them, and turn them from the danger. All flocks for which pasturage can be obtained among the mountains, are driven thither during the winter months. Here, though

to the eye there appears little or no grass for them to eat, they commonly do well, being protected from the cold winds.

During the seasons which they pass in the mountains, they are twice a week driven to salt water; and as the herbage is not so succulent as that of England, and in its greenest state of a drying nature, it is found necessary to drive the flocks to fresh water twice a day throughout the year. The wool which the common Tatar sheep produce, after all this trouble and expence, is worth from thirty to thirty-five kopeeks per oka, or about a penny per pound. A sheep commonly yields from two and a half to three and a half pounds, much of which is in quality little better than goat's hair.

When the operation of shearing is to be performed, the legs of the animal are tied, as if it were about to be killed. The shears are the most awkward instruments imaginable, being as long as our garden shears, and shaped like two knives riveted together. The shearers squat on the ground by the side of the sheep, and the more expert among them profess to be able to clip

from three to four hundred in a day. On one occasion which fell within my knowledge, three Tatars clipped about two hundred sheep in a space of time not exceeding three hours. They were however waited on and assisted by several others, and no boast could be made of the neatness with which their work was done.

Few Spanish sheep are kept in the Crimea, and of these the management is but little understood, as they are generally infested with the scab, which destroys the fine texture of the wool, and causes heavy losses among them. I have heard of five hundred lost in the course of a single season, from flocks consisting of two or three thousand. Poverty of keep throughout the winter is often fatal to great numbers in the spring; for the Tatars, though they estimate their riches by the quantity of their stock*, are frequently too

* A Tatar who resided in a village adjoining Karagoss, possessed one thousand seven hundred sheep, twelve oxen, thirty cows, and fifteen horses, yet his hut, consisting only of one room, was little superior to an Irish cabin, and worth about ten or fifteen rubles. This man lately divided his property between his wife and children, and taking with him two thou-

avaricious, or too idle, to prepare sufficient provender for them against the inclement season. As they have no idea of deriving a yearly revenue from possessions of this nature, they seldom sell any part of their flock, excepting a few lambs in spring, so that, unless required for domestic consumption, a sheep is in little danger of the knife. The mutton and beef of the Crimea are bad; but the lamb, which is fed on the mountains of the coast, is the best which I have any where tasted.

In speaking of the flocks of the Crimea, those from which the grey lambs'-skins are obtained must not be forgotten. These are only to be found at the two extremities of the peninsula, in the neighbourhoods of Kertch, and Kosloff. I have been told that wheresoever else they have been tried, they are found to degenerate; but whether this circumstance be owing to peculiarity of soil, or to want of care in the preservation of the

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sand five hundred rubles for his journey, set out on a pilgrimage to Mecca, where he arrived in safety, but died at Constantinople on his return.

breed, I am unable to say. The lambs are killed very young, when the wool is finest, and their skins are worth, according to their quality, and other circumstances, from five to seven, or even ten rubles each. These skins are all bought up by the merchants, and sent to Moscow and other places in the interior. The carcasses are brought to market, and lamb is at that season so plentiful and cheap, that a large one may be purchased for three or four rubles.

The common price given to a proprietor by those who pasture their sheep on his land, is an ewe and a lamb per hundred, for three or four months. The Tatars have an idea, that if their sheep feed on the *stipa pinnata*, a plant which grows upon the Stepp, it destroys them, by eating into their livers.

Goats are kept in great numbers with the flocks of sheep. They are not handsome of their kind, and as neither the carcass nor skin bear any considerable value, they seem to be very unprofitable stock. A Tatar, however, computes his riches by the number rather than by the intrinsic worth of his possessions.

Some shawl goats were lately brought from Bucharia to the Crimea, and were shipped for France from the port of Kaffa. The fine wool for which they are so famous, is concealed under a coat of long coarse hair, and in appearance they are very little superior to the native breed.

Every Tatar village is full of dogs, as there is not a house which is not defended by two or three of them. With the exception of a few greyhounds, they are chiefly of a mongrel breed, and somewhat resemble our shepherds' dogs. The Tatars scruple to take the lives of these animals, as well as cats, but sometimes destroy their offspring, by conveying them to a distance on the Stepp, and there abandoning them to their fate.

Coursing is a favourite amusement with the Tatars, who, contrary to our practice, take out for this purpose as many dogs as they can muster, and ensure the destruction of poor puss, by surrounding and besetting her on all sides, like some ferocious animal, until she is hunted by one greyhound into the mouth of another. As soon as they have picked up their prize they immediately cut its throat, as they are forbidden to eat "flesh

with the blood thereof." I have seen them refuse to partake of game at our table, because they suspected that it had not undergone this operation. The hares of the Crimea are very large, generally weighing nine or ten, and often thirteen or fourteen pounds. Their fur becomes somewhat more grey in winter, but never white, as in the north of Russia, and Poland. The wild rabbit does not exist in the peninsula.

The most remarkable animal of the Crimea is the jerboa, which is an inhabitant of the open plains. During my residence at Karagoss, two English gentlemen observed one of these little creatures running and jumping on the Stepp, near our garden. They followed with a determination to catch it; but after chasing it in many directions for about an hour, one of them returned home for a dog to assist them, while the other remained in order to keep the jerboa in sight. Even with this additional force, they renewed the chase without success; for after keeping both man and dog at a distance for half an hour longer, it at last ran into cover, among the stacks and straw on the *toke*, or threshing-floor. Whenever pressed, it

sprang, by the help of its tail, to the distance of five or six yards. My son once brought one home which had been caught by a greyhound, but he believes that the dog had surprised it while sleeping.

Of the larger animals, the wild boar, and a small species of deer, are found on the wooded mountains, and are sometimes brought to market by the Bulgarian settlers. Wolves also are occasionally heard of, and do considerable mischief among the flocks of sheep, but they are by no means so numerous as on the northern Stepps.

Notwithstanding our vicinity to the spot from which the pheasant is said to have derived its origin and its name, that bird is never seen in the Crimea. Partridges and quails are sufficiently plentiful, and the bustard is not uncommon on the Stepp. There are also said to be five distinct species of snipes. Three birds, remarkable for their beautiful plumage, but all, I believe, occasionally found in England, frequent the garden at Karagoss: the hoopoe, the roller, and the bee-eater. The latter appears to be a bird of passage, arriving early in the spring,

and committing great depredations among the hives, if not well watched and destroyed.

The Tatars and Greeks have no knowledge of the art of shooting flying, and always express the greatest wonder when they see it practised.

The Tatars make considerable exertions to destroy the locusts, when a flight of those creatures, as sometimes happens, visits the Crimea. The villagers are called out by districts, and from five hundred to one thousand men are encamped upon the parts of the Stepp which are infested by them. In the instance which occurred during my residence, this system continued for several weeks, and much hay, which lay ready to be carried home, was used for the purpose of burning the locusts. This was done by making trenches, depositing the hay therein, setting fire to it, and sweeping the locusts into destruction.

The annoyance of flies and fleas begins with the first mild weather, and does not cease till the recurrence of frost. The usual method of destroying the latter, is by setting a dish full of water by the side of a lighted candle. In this

manner we have sometimes caught three, four, and five hundred in the course of a single night.

There are several beautiful species of insects which my children have collected in the garden and fields, particularly a large blue beetle, the covering of which possesses the brightest possible hue and polish. The fire-fly also enlivens the darkness of our summer nights.

Many bees are kept in the Crimea, and the honey of the peninsula is in considerable repute, being much preferred to that of Russia. No less than five hundred hives were formerly kept by one individual at Karagoss, and during my residence, a Greek of Imarette was possessed of three hundred. The Tatars are extremely fond of honey, which they eat, when they can obtain it, in great quantities with their pastry, but they are not themselves permitted to keep bees, when the proprietor of the estate on which they live has a bee garden.

Nearly all the salt used in the Crimea is obtained from the lakes in the neighbourhood of Perekop*, where but little art is required for

* There are other salt lakes, but not so considerable, near the sea of Azoff. They belong to the town of Theodosia.

the collection of it. A cart is driven into the water, and the salt is shovelled into it from the bottom with a spade. This operation takes place in the month of September, after the heats of summer have produced the necessary evaporation, and before the commencement of the autumnal rains. The salt is sold to the consumer in the state in which it comes from the lake, and is afterwards purified by him, if he think proper, at his own house. Starch is likewise an object of domestic manufacture.

In the summer of 1817, I performed a journey on horseback round the mountains which border the south coast of the peninsula, and which have been often and accurately described. The most beautiful spots in that delightful district appeared to me to be Kutchuk Lambat, (at the edge of a small bay, and opposite to the lofty mountain Ayou-dagh), Nikita, and Aloupka. The descriptions of these places may be found in the works of the numerous travellers who have borne testimony to their beauties.

The bay trees of Aloupka are much celebrated, but those of the adjoining village of Simeus are scarcely less remarkable, one which we mea-

sured being upwards of thirteen feet in circumference. The lower part of the large and open valley of Nikita is now covered by a government nursery garden, which has been formed within the last few years, for the purpose of encouraging and extending the cultivation of fruit trees in the peninsula. We saw large beds of seedling olives, and of the Spanish chesnut tree, of which latter, till lately, only two specimens were to be found in the Crimea. Apple, pear, peach and almond trees are sold at Nikita, at the price of from thirty to fifty kopeeks the plant, during the first year after grafting; and in 1815, six thousand plants were thus disposed of. At the season of our visit, which took place about the end of June, the fig trees were covered with unripe fruit, and the olives and pomegranates were still in blossom. This establishment is under the care of German directors.

The scenery of Alushta, which is one of the most celebrated points within the compass of our tour, is inferior, I think, to that of the three spots which I have mentioned, and somewhat disappoints expectation; though the broad valley,

stretching inland from the sea to the roots of Tchatyr Dagh, possesses, without question, considerable beauty. With what different eyes has this singularly shaped mountain been viewed by different nations; and how plainly have they betokened their several habits in the names which they have chosen to affix to it! The Greeks called it Table Mountain; the Tatars, Tent Mountain; the Cossacks, Saddle Mountain; but an Englishman at Sevastopol told a friend of mine, that he considered it as resembling nothing so much as a sirloin of beef.

On that part of the coast which lies between Kaffa and Sudac, some ruins have lately been discovered, at a spot called Koktabell, which are believed by some to denote the site of the ancient Theodosia. Its distance from the Cimmerian Bosphorus is said to coincide exactly with Strabo's account, and an artificial as well as a natural harbour is still discernible; the sea now breaking over the mole which formerly protected it, and running smoothly through the entrance of the haven. A vast number of ruins bespeak it to have been a place of large extent; but those

which I observed consisted merely of foundations, constructed of rough stones and cement. We ascended a mountain to the ruins of a Genoese castle, the pathway on the summit of which is singularly narrow and tremendous. A small tongue of land near this port, commanding an extensive view of the Euxine, is now occupied by a Cossack guard.

During the last summer of my residence in the Crimea, a circumstance occurred, with the mention of which I will conclude these Notes. When the time for my departure approached, and it became generally known that I was going, I was surprised one morning by a visit from a Tatar Murza with whom I was previously unacquainted. After much ceremony, he informed me, that having heard of my projected return to England, and supposing that I would not venture unprotected upon so long and perilous a journey, he waited upon me for the purpose of recommending to me two men, to act as an escort or guard. One of these was an old Tatar who was with him, and the other was his own brother. He ended by referring me to a common friend

for further information, and gave me his address. Upon my asking him how far these men were willing to go, if I should require their attendance? "As far as your own frontiers," said he, "or *even to England,* if you wish it." I informed him of the uncertainty of the time and mode of my journey, and that I possibly might return by sea from Theodosia; but I assured him, that if I should stand in need of such attendants, I should not forget his reccommendation.

After this many other Tatars came on the same errand; and though the expectation of a handsome remuneration was undoubtedly the motive which induced these persons to make so extraordinary an application, from others of their nation with whom I had more intercourse, and particularly from some of our own villagers, I experienced at the eve of my departure, and indeed during the whole of my stay, so many instances of kindness and attachment, that I shall never cease to derive sincere gratification from the recollection of their disinterested good will.

PRICES OF PRODUCE, LABOUR, &c.

IN THE CRIMEA.

	Rubles.
W. Wheat, ten years back, four rubles to twenty, but the average price	10
Arnoot ditto (eight to forty), average	15
Rye (two to twelve), average	5
Barley generally about the same price	
Oats (two to eight), average	4

In transporting corn to the distance of twenty versts, I have known two rubles paid for a cart which carried four and a half or five tchetverts.

Hay is sold at from fifty kopeeks to one ruble and twenty kopeeks per pood, in scarce winters, at Theodosia.

Oxen cost, on an average, one hundred rubles per pair.

Cows, about thirty-five rubles each, and some few sixty rubles.

Horses, from twenty to one hundred and twenty rubles; some few, one hundred and fifty to two hundred rubles; the general price about forty rubles.

Sheep and ewes, ten rubles; lambs, five rubles; rams, fifteen rubles; two year wethers, seven to ten rubles.

Implements;—a plough, twenty to thirty rubles, a cart, twenty to twenty-five rubles.

To hire a plough ten rubles a day are given, for which three men and six pair of oxen are furnished, who plough as much as four measures will sow.

Labourers are hired from St. George's to St. Demetrius's day, or *vice versa*. Wages are about two hundred rubles per annum, and two suits of clothes, comprising shube, tchekmen, two pair of trowsers, two shirts, and shoes of ox-hide; also an allowance of two or two and a half measures of corn per month.

Russian tchetvert = 5¼ bushels English.
Ditto pound = 12 ounces do.
8 lb. Russian = 4 lb. Tatar = 1 oka.
36 lb. English = 40 lb. Russian = 1 pood.

MONEY.

1 ruble = 100 kopeeks. 5 kopeeks = 1 petack.

The value of the ruble during my stay may be stated at tenpence.

THE END.

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a situation which must have given her access to the best information: under these circumstances, that she should have produced so small and cheap a book as this before us, is both mortifying and surprising. However, we are thankful for the boon, scanty as it is, and are willing to confess, that the quantity of facts which she has collected, are in a much greater proportion than the size or number of her pages would have warranted us in expecting."—*British Critic, August*, 1821.

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DR. MANT has made great use of CALMET in the Notes to his Bible, published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; and in his list of books to which he acknowledges obligations, particularly specifies the "FRAGMENTS" annexed to this Edition of CALMET.

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OF THE ROYAL MILITARY ACADEMY, WOOLWICH.

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There has never, perhaps, been a period in the modern history of Europe, when it could be less necessary than at the present moment, to enforce reasons for publishing a new System of Geography. The political events of the last seven years have, in fact, so entirely changed the territorial relations of the different Continental States, that all pre-existing Geographical Works are, in a measure, obsolete. There is scarcely a single country in Europe which, within the above period, has not experienced either an increase or a diminution of its possessions. We do not mean simply a contiguous increase or diminution; but such accessions or losses as have materially altered their relative characters.

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We trust we have said enough to prove, that the present period is one peculiarly fit for the execution of a Work like this. We have shown that the entire face of Europe has undergone a political revolution since the year 1814; and that a NEW SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY, which should distinctly define all the effects of that revolution, particularly as affecting territorial boundaries and dominion, would be a valuable accession to our national literature. We have also shown, that the facilities of international communication, naturally arising from a general peace, have been employed by intelligent individuals in accumulating valuable stores of information with respect to the natural, the moral, and the political condition of different countries. These, then, are the sources whence we have derived our claims to public patronage. How far we may have made a proper use of them, the reader will be enabled to judge, by the very flattering testimonials hereunto annexed.

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From the REV. W. B. COLLYER, D.D. LL.D. F.A.S. &c. *Camberwell.*

I have read Mr. Myers's "NEW AND COMPREHENSIVE SYSTEM OF MODERN GEOGRAPHY," so far as the Work has proceeded, with unqualified pleasure; and though my feeble testimony may be of little value to so distinguished a Publication, I cannot withhold it, such as it is, from a production which promises to be no less advantageous to the World, than honourable to the amiable and able Author. It appears to me, to combine every excellence that can be associated with that branch of science to which it relates.

March 14th, 1821.

II.

From DR. OLINTHUS GREGORY, *Professor of Mathematics at the* ROYAL MILITARY ACADEMY, *Woolwich.*

A System of "MODERN GEOGRAPHY," from the pen of my worthy Colleague, Mr. Myers, can never stand in need of my recommendation. Being requested, however, to express my opinion of it, I have no hesitation in saying, that I regard it as a very valuable Treatise, on a subject of Universal Interest. The delineations of the peculiarities of the several parts of the Terraqueous Globe which come under review, are perspicuous, graphical, and correct; the Remarks upon the characteristics of the Inhabitants, their Habits, Pursuits, and Governments, are candid and philosophical; the Commercial and Statistical Information is well exhibited, and is generally drawn from authentic and indubitable sources; and the express Articles of the Treaties of CONGRESS, and other social compacts relating to different Countries, are appropriately introduced. The coloured Maps are very neatly, and, I believe, accurately executed; and the other Engravings, referring principally to interesting points of Scenery and Costume, are real embellishments to the several 'Parts' as they issue successively from the press. The "General Introduction," which is indeed "copious," and is partly historical, partly philosophical, partly mathematical, partly moral and political, is in itself of high utility; and, viewed in connexion with the system at large, will be found extremely judicious, comprehensive, and instructive.

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